The Nation.

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The Week.

The President in his annual message declared that it was "our plain duty to abolish all customs tariffs between the United States and Porto Rico, and give her products free access to our markets." Secretary Root made a similar declaration at greater length in his annual report, and for a short time everybody seemed to acquiesce. The Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee introduced a bill to carry these views into effect. Presently a growl was heard in another quarter. The protectionist fraternity, who had been seemingly asleep all the time that we were acquiring this foreign territory by war and by purchase, suddenly awoke to the fact that there was danger in bringing in a certain amount of tobacco and sugar and oranges free of duty. So they "organized" and sent a delegation to Washington to remonstrate with Mr. McKinley. It was a matter of indifference to them whether the islanders were to be citizens or subjects. The political status of Porto Rico was nothing to them. Taxation without representation, or with it, was quite immaterial from their point of view. What they would not put up with in any event was the admission of Porto Rican products to the United States free of duty. They were not nice about it. They had learned something of the President's character from the experience of the group of Congressmen who, as Mr. Boutelle said, went up to the White House just before the declaration of war against Spain, and "held a stop-watch over Mr. McKinley's head while he was engaged in determining what kind of a message he would send to Congress." This protectionist group, as we are credibly informed, told Mr. McKinley to "drop it," and said that they would defeat him in the coming election if he did not. And he did drop it.

We have no doubt that the conversation with the President reported by Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson gives a correct statement of Mr. McKinley's present attitude on the Porto Rico question. The substance of it is, that the Constitution of the United States does not apply to the island, that the people of Porto Rico have no civil rights except such as this country chooses to give them, and that our new dependencies must not be permitted to do injury to any of the protected interests of this country. Thus the President has been forced, much against his will, to tell what his policy is; or, rather, what his present policy is, for he may change again before the nominating convention meets. He is for Imperialism, and not for mere Expansion. His policy is not benevolent assimilation, but benevolent despotism. What freaks our despot may indulge in, no one can say. It was reported a few days ago that he contemplated declaring the insurgents in the Philippines outlaws, to be hanged whenever caught. This would be in the line of Imperialism of the old Roman sort, but the Romans, we believe, never made a pretence of benevolence in the application of it.

The Porto Rico bill is now before the House. In the Senate Mr. Cullom has secured consideration for the Hawaii bill. The two measures, therefore, are under discussion simultaneously in the two branches of Congress. The Cullom bill grants free trade to the people of the Hawaiian Islands; the Ways and Means Committee's bill imposes a tariff upon the people of Porto Rico. It will be interesting for the visitor in Washington to hear a Republican Senator maintain that people living on one group of islands under American rule should enjoy the benefits of free trade because that group is in the Pacific Ocean, and then go to the other end of the capitol and hear a Republican Representative argue that people living under the same flag on another island should be denied those benefits because their island is in the Atlantic Ocean.

The decision of the Board of General Appraisers, to the effect that the tariff laws of the United States did not apply in Porto Rico during the period of military occupation, appears to be partially in conformity with the decision in the case of duties collected in California during the Mexican war. It was then declared by the Supreme Court that, so long as war continued, the military government of California had power to levy taxes or to do any act which any government might do according to the recognized principles of international law. If the duties for the return of which suit was brought were collected during the continuance of the war, the General Appraisers have authority for their decision. If they were collected on merchandise transported from Porto Rico to this country, or from this country to Porto Rico, after the war terminated, the General Appraisers differ with the Supreme Court, as formerly constituted. Porto Rico is now under what the Supreme Court called a de-facto government, "which will, of course, exercise no power inconsistent with the provisions of the Constitution of the United States, which is the supreme law of the land."

In his argument in support of a tariff for Porto Rico, Mr. Dalzell of Pennsylvania was fairly driven by the logic of necessity to declare that such Territories as Arizona and New Mexico have no constitutional rights. He was asked whether Congress could prescribe free trade for Arizona and a high tariff for New Mexico, and he manfully asserted that it had the power to do so. If it ever had the power, it has certainly not lost it, and very delightful visions of coming tariffs for Arizona and Alaska will soon be floating before the eyes of protectionists. The industries of these Territories are all infantile, and it is certainly the duty of Congress to give them the blessings of a tariff as soon as possible. If a tariff is going to benefit Porto Rico so much as is claimed, certainly the poor neglected Alaskans appeal to our humanity; and, on the other hand, the laborers of the United States should not be exposed to the competition of the degraded Indians and half-breed Mexicans of the Territories. It may give something of a wrench to our traditions, and will desperately tax the ingenuity of the Supreme Court, to deprive these Territories of the Constitution under which they have supposed themselves to exist; but it is so supremely important to have it established that Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands are not in the United States or a part thereof, that it does not make much difference if some of the older Territories are also excluded. Mr. Dalzell deserves to be commended for his honesty; but the position which he is forced to take is likely to make many people comprehend the dangers involved in an imperial policy. They have laughed at the idea that to maintain a despotic government in our own conquests would react on freedom at home; but they can now see that the inhabitants of our Territories may soon be denied the protection of constitutional government.

Mr. Hepburn's report on the Nicaragua Canal bill is one more affront for the Administration from a Republican committee of the House. The President and Secretary Hay have just recognized in the most formal way the binding validity of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. Now comes the House committee on interstate and foreign commerce, and declares that instrument to be a mother of dead dogs, and any American statesman a fool or traitor who admits the slightest obligation to respect its provisions. But we do not see how any sane man can be expected to pay any attention whatever to Mr. Hepburn's recommendations. He not

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only insults the President and flouts the law and the settled traditions of our diplomacy, but falls violently foul of common sense. He would have a canal not neutral even in time of peace. "Discriminating tolls" are what he wants, so that our hated rivals may be crushed both in peace and war. This, of course, is simply a whoop instead of a report. It must be a little humiliating to the Administration, however, to have a committee of its ardent supporters emit such stark nonsense at the very moment it is trying to close a dignified negotiation for a civilized Isthmian canal. We must say, though, that Mr. Hepburn's rolling specification of all the things truly "American" involved in his wild plan, reads very like a plagiarism from one of Mr. McKinley's earlier tariff speeches.

The ship-subsidy bill purports to be a measure "to promote commerce and increase the foreign trade of the United States, and to provide auxiliary cruisers, transports, and seamen for the Government use when necessary." This is the declaration of its title. The bill excludes all coastwise vessels, all lake vessels, and all fishing vessels, except those engaged in deep-sea fisheries. Yet all these vessels are engaged in training seamen just as much and just as effectually as those engaged in foreign trade. Why, then, should they not have some part of the subsidy? If navigation is such a meritorious calling that it should be subsidized with the money of the taxpayers, surely the coasting trade and the lake trade ought not to be overlooked. We are not sure that the canal boatmen ought not to have a slice of the cake. They are certainly poorer than the International Navigation Company, and more deserving of sympathy. The carriers on the lakes and canals really furnish the cargoes for the ocean-going ships, without which the foreign trade could not be carried on. It seems invidious, therefore, to give all the plums to the ships that sail across the ocean, and none to those that sail from one American port to another.

There is plenty of evidence that the clause in the title to the bill about seamen is a pretence and a sham. Section four says that no subsidy shall be paid to any vessel unless one-fourth of her crew are American citizens, or persons who have declared their intention to become such, and have served three years on American vessels. One-fourth is not a very large proportion of American sailors to entitle a vessel to subsidy, but even this is neutralized by the next clause of the bill, which makes an exception in cases where this proportion of Americans "cannot be reasonably obtained." The person to judge of the "reasonableness" is any shipping commissioner, or officer discharging his duties, in a home port, or any United States Consul, or any officer discharging his duties, in a foreign port. It is safe to say that a certificate of reasonableness would never be wanting in a case of deficiency of American sailors, since no consul, or person discharging his duties, would take the trouble to scour the docks to see whether American sailors could be "reasonably" obtained, if the captain of the ship should declare that they could not be. The bill is full of jugglers' tricks, the half of which have not yet been exposed.

It is a disagreeable surprise that the House Committee on Foreign Affairs should have defeated the movement for consular reform in this Congress, and laid the whole subject on the table. The friends of this long-needed reform had been much encouraged by the fact that a good many business men, in the West as well as in the East, had become convinced of the necessity of action, and had tried to impress their views upon Congressmen. So long as "theorists" and "doctrinaires" were the only people advocating a change, there was little hope of any action. It now appears that the spoilsmen feel strong enough to refuse consideration to even a good representation of business men.

The proceedings before the Senate committee in the Montana case continue to disclose either venality or perjury, or both, to a disgusting extent. The latest charge is that an attempt was made to bribe one of the justices of the Supreme Court by his family physician, who named $100,000 as a consideration. The justice, like Cæsar, when the kingly crown was offered him, did thrice refuse. In fact, he says, he refused at once and unequivocally, but still kept on good terms with the doctor. This testimony is said to have been highly pleasing to the lawyers for the prosecution, while the lawyers for the defence were greatly amused by it. Another justice of the Supreme Court testified that Senator Clark's counsel came to him in great excitement, asking if it were true that an attempt to influence the court was taking place, intimating that $5,000,000 was to be employed. To this question the justice replied that such a report would not be confirmed by him, for he would kill any one that approached him with a bribe. That speaks well for the honor of this justice, but he was obliged to admit that he was not sure that the excitement of the counsel was not feigned, and that the question was not asked him in order to prepare his mind against the $100,000 story. The family physician, who had described his original suggestion as "a funny proposition," now says that the whole thing was a joke. No wonder that members of the Senate committee describe the affair as the most intricate case of corrupt politics ever known. The committee would have saved themselves much time if they had peremptorily refused to listen to the statements of men who admit that they are liars and perjurers.

One thing which worries many thoughtful Republicans in the central West is the Trust issue. They recognize that there is a great deal of humbug in the talk of the Bryanites about this matter, but they also appreciate the fact that many of the worst Trusts are profiting by Republican tariff legislation. A repeal of the duties on certain articles would deal the hardest blow at some of these Trusts that they could suffer, and more than one Republican Congressman feels the necessity of doing this. Representative Hemenway of Indiana is such a man, and he does not hesitate to speak his mind. He writes to the Evansville *Journal* that legislation to repeal duties on articles controlled by Trusts ought to be enacted, and that he has so told Chairman Payne of the Ways and Means Committee. He adds:

> "I have also stated to him that I believed the Republican party ought to act promptly where Trusts are formed to control any article that is protected. We cannot permit Trusts to raise the price of any protected article without being justly criticised, and, in my opinion, if Congress will act promptly in these matters, no Trust can successfully increase prices upon such articles as are protected."

Iowa Republicans are of the same mind. The Keokuk *Gate City*, whose editor was a member of the last Congress, recently remarked that "if Congress will hit a few specific Trusts like those of paper, tin, and copper by a prompt taking from them of the protection given them by high tariff duty, it will teach swift instruction to all other Trusts, and you will see how soon they will abate their pretensions," and went on to say: "The Republican party will not have the shadow of a chance to carry the Presidential election of this year if this Republican Congress leaves all the cormorant Trusts preying upon the American people next November as they are now." But is anybody simple enough to suppose that the protected interests will allow the tariff to be touched for this purpose?

The controversy in Kentucky is relieved, for the present at least, from the complication which the interference of the Federal courts would produce. Judge Taft of the United States Circuit Court has refused the application for an injunction to prevent the removal of certain State officers by the Kentucky Board of Elections. His refusal is based entirely on the legal principle laid down positively by the Supreme Court, that under no circumstances has a court of equity jurisdiction to interfere by injunction to prevent a removal from office, however fraudulent or unjust the threatened pro-

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ceedings. The courts of Kentucky afford an appropriate remedy for the asserted injustice. They provide for proceedings to remove an officer by writ of *quo warranto*, and there is also a remedy at law to prevent usurpation of office. If in such proceedings any Federal question arises, a writ of error to the Supreme Court can be obtained. This leaves the dispute to be settled by the proper tribunals, and Gov. Taylor has already begun suit to restrain his rivals from acting officially.

The Democrats in the Legislature have taken the ground that their original, and decidedly irregular, action in deciding the contest for the office of Governor in favor of Goebel was sufficiently valid to determine his title. But they seem to have thought that it might be strengthened by "reaffirming" it; a step of doubtful policy. If the original decision was lawful, it will not be made more so by a reaffirmation; and if it was not lawful, the proper course would be to make a lawful one now. Probably they fear the consequences of admitting that Taylor has been Governor during the last few weeks; but that does not seem to be a material fact. The questions to be eventually decided by the courts are practically only two. The first is whether the action of the Legislature in deciding the contest in favor of Goebel was, in view of the fact that Gov. Taylor prevented a regular session by armed force, so irregular as to be void. The second, and really more important one, is whether, on a thorough examination of all the circumstances of the election, any decision by the Legislature in favor of Goebel can possibly be sustained. The courts cannot decide this question without very prolonged investigation.

Mr. Peckham's letter to the committee of the New York Legislature on taxation goes to the root of the question of taxing evidences of debt. His chief point is that any tax on such evidences must be paid out of the interest, and the rate of interest cannot be determined by statute It depends on the money market—that is, the capital market—of the world. Whatever that rate is, the lender of capital will get or he will not lend. Not only is it true that all taxes must be paid out of income, but they must also leave a certain fairly liberal proportion of the income for the owner. All effort made by the State, Mr. Peckham contends, to apportion a tax between borrower and lender is certain to be futile. "The tax must be paid out of the profit made by the borrower, and the net current rate of interest must be paid by the lender, or he will not lend. You may possibly prevent loans, you may drive capital out of the State, you may possibly bring about conditions in which each one having capital will be compelled to use it himself rather than lend it to one more capable of using it, you may greatly raise the rate of interest, because of the dangers of lending, but you will never be able to tax the lenders of capital so as to give to them a rate of interest less than that established by the law of supply and demand." This is forcibly stated, but Mr. Peckham overlooks the fact that one of the conditions affecting the market rate of interest is the extent of the field of investment. If the owners of capital demand a higher rate of interest than now prevails, some people who intended to borrow will not borrow, and in that way the field of investment will be contracted. In other words, there will be a decreased demand for capital, which would result in competition among capitalists for loans, with the natural consequence of a lower rate of interest. The difficulty lies in estimating the comparative effects of a number of causes, and economists generally regard the problem of the ultimate incidence of taxation as one of the greatest complexity.

A step has been taken in the direction of that "Religious Trust" which was advocated by President Hyde of Bowdoin College at the recent Church Federation Conference in this city. Representatives of six benevolent organizations, like the Home Missionary Society, have held a meeting to consider the idea of federating their work. It was admitted that the societies are over-secretaried; that officers hold the positions for life, and are sometimes retained after they have ceased to be efficient; that there are too many auxiliaries and collecting agencies, and too many salaried persons soliciting money; and that the proportion of collectors among the churches to laborers in mission fields is much too large. It was conceded, too, that there should have been long ago a division of territory between two societies engaged in similar work, and that there should be some body to which all such questions might be referred. A committee of one from each of the six societies was constituted, which these six are to increase to nine, to advance the common interests of the societies, to secure the fullest development of their resources, and the utmost economy and efficiency of their administration, with a recommendation that any questions arising between any of the societies be submitted to this committee. This settles nothing, but it may prove a valuable first step.

It was clear from the first dispatches that Lord Roberts had won a decided tactical success, and the later news indicates that the material results of his rapid and brilliant movement will be momentous. It is very evident that the Boers were surprised, and that their retreat was precipitate. Kimberley has been relieved, and once more put in railroad communication with the Cape, and, so far as the western border is concerned, the tide has distinctly turned in favor of the British. Colenso, too, has been occupied by Gen. Buller. It will now be possible to pursue the original plan of campaign, and march on Bloemfontein. In England, the success of Lord Roberts has been more than welcome. Although the newspapers have, no doubt, exaggerated the state of public anxiety, the country was suffering from the strain and from hope so long deferred, and will be much braced by the decidedly improving prospects of the campaign. If Lord Rosebery were to speak to-day, he would not adopt the alarmist tone which he fell into ten days ago. He seems to have formed the notion that the way to reunite the Liberal party and beat the Conservatives is to out-Jingo them; and, in his recent addresses, has put himself forward as the great Liberial Imperialist, ready to raise a standing army of 600,000 men, and spend money like water on guns and ships. His charge that Lord Salisbury has been and is still supine and not awake to the military needs of the empire, has probably this political motive behind it.

The Germans have found the colonizing of their Chinese acquisition, Kiao-Chau, by no means so easy a process as their first impressions led them to believe. Ugly rumors of widespread illness among the garrison, from the governor down, have been reaching Germany for some time past, and the death report has been comparatively only a little pleasanter reading than that cabled weekly from Manila. A review of the settlement's progress from October, 1898, to October, 1899, recently published by the Government, has failed wholly to reassure the German public as to the healthfulness of the new colony, since it suppresses the percentage of sickness among the troops. According to this document, however, malaria has not made itself seriously felt, and the situation of the colony is considered more healthful for Europeans than that of any other Chinese port. The admittedly large number of typhoid-fever cases is attributed to the sanitary sins of the Chinese. as well as to some recent excavations for building purposes. A good deal of space is given to describing the measures employed to care for the invalids and to prevent sickness in the future. Attention is also called to the plan to give the natives an independent government, under the careful supervision of German officials, which shall deal particularly with questions of agriculture and education. It is by this means, perhaps, that the German government is seeking to achieve in Kiao-Chau that success which it has been denied in its colonizing experiments elsewhere.

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THE MORALS OF THE PORTO RICAN QUESTION.

"Free trade between the United States and Porto Rico is a moral question. It is *practical religion;* and our people can never supply the missing link in the moral education and religious training of this people without giving them an opportunity to earn a living, and without treating them as we treat other Americans." This is the language held by the United States Consul in Porto Rico, Philip C. Hanna. He declares that, "as an American," he believes the island should have "absolute free trade with all parts of the United States," and that he is convinced that "Porto Rico can never become prosperous until she can buy bread for her people without paying enormous revenue duties for the privilege of bringing that bread into the island."

This is a correct statement of the question that is now agitating the country and Congress, and exposing the President to daily insult and humiliation. Leaders in Congress go to the White House to ask Mr. McKinley if the moral law has changed since he said, last December, that it required us to give the Porto Ricans free trade. A self-respecting man would have shown such inquirers the door. Could a notoriously pious President, fresh from delightful intercourse with Methodist Bishops, submit to have his character as an honest man thus challenged in his own office? But Mr. McKinley is as meek as he is good. He told the Congressional delegation that our "plain duty" remained just what he said it was in his message; humanity demanded that we grant the Porto Ricans free trade; national honor required it, but, "as a matter of expediency," it would be just as well to vote for the bill intended to exploit and starve the islanders. In other words, when President McKinley solemnly and publicly acknowledged the moral obligation to establish free trade with Porto Rico, he did not think he would live to eat his own words—rather, have them crammed down his throat by angry tobacco-growers. His own attitude on this question confirms the worst that has been said about his moral cowardice. By lifting one finger he could make Congress do what he has declared it a national duty to do, yet he cowers before the merest bogey thrust in his face by a heartless crew, and lets "expediency"—*i. e.*, votes for his own reëlection—override "plain duty."

"A great metropolitan daily"—we believe that is the proper phrase—which has been painfully climbing from one side of the fence to the other, in its attempts to support the President in his Porto Rican business, plaintively says that "there is nothing to show" that the Porto Ricans themselves want free trade. We charitably withhold the name of a journal which thus confesses itself cut off from the ordinary channels of information. The newspapers of Porto Rico, whether in Spanish or English, whether of native or American ownership and editing, have been of one voice in saying that free trade is the sole salvation of the island. Only in the latest issues to hand had there come to be a hint, in their dispatches from the United States, that there was a possibility that Congress might repeat in Porto Rico the blunders and crimes of Spain, and it was easy to see what indignation the rumor excited. A telegram from the island ten days ago showed what mingled rage and horror the proposals at Washington had produced. Nothing to show that the Porto Ricans want free trade? Why, Commissioner Carroll's report is stuffed with evidence that all classes and parties of them want it—nay, demand it, as men demand the right to be allowed to live.

In one of the Commissioner's earliest reports he said, "It is proper here to say that Porto Ricans of all classes are united in urging that the markets of the United States and Porto Rico shall be as free, reciprocally, as those of New York and Jersey City." A "Congress of Porto Ricans" met in San Juan in November, 1898, and one of its declarations was in favor of "free and reciprocal commerce with the American Union." Two political parties were organized in Porto Rico last year; the platforms of both call for free trade. The "Republican party of Porto Rico" declared in March, 1899, that "Commerce should be free between Porto Rico and the United States." The plank in the platform of the "Federal party" asserted that "It is indispensable and just to abolish the customs tariff and to establish free commerce between Porto Rico and the rest of the Union." So we might go on with statement after statement by merchants and planters and bankers and manufacturers. "The Golden Dream of Porto Ricans" is the phrase used in describing one prominent native's plea for free trade, who added, "If that is not granted, we are all lost. There is no possible salvation."

This is undoubtedly the form in which the appeal is now reaching the hearts of Americans. It is not a debate about fiscal policies. It is no wrangle over constitutional interpretation. The simple question is, Are we going to deny the prayer of these thousands of fellow-beings who have no earthly help but in us? Are we going to be only a shade less cruel to them than Spain, and then boast of it, as the *Tribune* does? The hopes, the confidence, of the Porto Ricans are touching, as one reads their various expression. The planters of Mayaguez submitted a memorial, which concluded, "Knowing your good wishes, and the good wishes of the President of the great republic, we await with faith and enthusiasm the speedy change of the situation to one of prosperity for Porto Rico." Is Congress going to tell these helpless and trusting people that their confidence was misplaced—that they have simply changed tyrants? Is the President desirous of having his name become execrated in Porto Rico? The Republican party of that island declared that "The names of Washington, Lincoln, and McKinley are household words in Porto Rico." Is the last name now to be a household curse—a symbol of tyranny and bad faith? These are the questions which Congress must answer within the next few days. It must decide whether the heartless greed of a few selfish men is to outweigh the appeals and needs of a ruined people; whether we shall deliberately give the lie to all our fine professions of two years ago, and, whereas Spain chastised the Porto Ricans with whips, whether we ourselves shall chastise them with scorpions.

PASSAGE OF THE GOLD BILL.

The passage of the gold bill in the Senate has been anticipated as a certainty ever since the opening of the present session of Congress. The opposition to it has been feeble and listless, betokening a perfunctory rather than a vital interest in the question among the Democrats. It is nevertheless one of the most impressive events in our political history. Anybody who should have predicted four years ago a majority of votes at this time in the Senate for a bill establishing the gold standard, would have been considered a lunatic. Yet it has come to pass, and it is fresh evidence, amid some testimony of a contradictory kind, that the American people are, by slow degrees, gaining in wisdom and advancing toward a better estate.

The silver and the soft-money crazes of the past quarter of a century were born of the miseries and mistakes of the civil-war period. The legal-tender act was, as Chief Justice Chase acknowledged in one of his later opinions from the Supreme bench, a blunder. It added enormously to the cost of the war, it defrauded multitudes of men and women, and especially the wage-earning classes and the soldiers in the field. Worst of all, it poisoned men's minds, and introduced false conceptions of the nature of money, and entailed upon us a political conflict which at one time came near to producing general ruin and disorder. We are now at the end of that conflict, and the passage of the bill in the Senate with such small opposition is conclusive evidence of the fact. It will be impossible in the lifetime of the present generation to revive the silver controversy. There may be differences of opinion, more or less heated, concerning bank-note issues, but they will not be differences respecting the standard of value.

The Senate has substituted its own bill for the House bill on the same subject

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which passed the latter body early in the session. The differences between the two bills, except in the matter of refunding the national debt, are not very important. The House bill is the better of the two, but it is not so much better, except in the particular named, as to warrant any long contest over the differences. The refunding section of the Senate bill is a kind of a cat in the meal-tub that will become lively in the approaching political campaign if the bill is finally passed with that clause in it. The Republican newspapers have been slow in apprehending the true inwardness of this measure, but, in proportion as they have taken pains to understand it, they have perceived the dangers which lurk in it. The scheme proposes to distribute $88,000,000 as a cash bonus to the present bondholders for the privilege of paying them a further sum of $240,000,000 in the next thirty years in excess of what they would otherwise receive. This is to be done under the pretence of reducing the rate of interest on the public debt.

The prime factor in the national finances at the present time is the surplus of income over expenditures. This is likely to be $100,000,000 per year unless Congress is wildly extravagant in its appropriations. It may be safely said that it rests with Congress to pay off the existing debt at the rate of $100,000,000 per year if it chooses to do so. It happens that $850,000,000 of debt will mature within nine years, so that the Government can pay it off by using its surplus receipts for that purpose. There may be a few short intervals in which money will accumulate in the Treasury, between the maturity of one class of bonds and another. Former Congresses and Secretaries have been very careful to preserve the Government's option of payment of the principal of the debt, and the result has been very fortunate for the Government at the present juncture. But now a new policy is introduced quite unheard of heretofore, and it is proposed to throw overboard all the advantage gained by the wise foresight of former administrations, both Republican and Democratic. It is proposed to give away the option of redeeming the outstanding debt, and to extend the principal of those early maturing bonds for thirty years, and pay a bonus for the privilege of doing so.

The largest part of the outstanding bonds consist of 4 per cents, maturing in 1907. These were issued by Secretary Sherman in 1877, and they amount to $553,000,000. The interest on them till maturity will be $188,000,000. The Senate bill proposes, instead of paying them at maturity, to issue new bonds in exchange for them bearing 2 per cent. interest and running thirty years. The whole amount of interest to be paid under this scheme on these particular bonds will be $331,800,000, being a loss to the Government of $143,800,000, besides the cash bonus of about $50,000,000. All this might be justified in the case of a nation which could not redeem its notes at maturity and stop the interest, but is wholly unjustifiable in the circumstances of the United States at the present time.

This is a sample of the refunding scheme. The other batches of bonds maturing within nine years bring the loss on the refunding operation up to $240,000,000, plus the bonus of $88,000,000. It is a reversal of our entire financial policy from the days of Hamilton to the present time, and is in itself astounding. We cannot conceive it possible that the House should agree to it. If it does, there will be many Republican seats emptied next November.

PLUNDERING THE CITY.

Were it not for the magnitude of the interests affected, the impunity with which the city of New York is plundered would be ludicrous. The number of persons directly interested in the spoils is not very great, and even those indirectly profited are a comparatively small minority of the population. But with all the protection supposed to be afforded by a scientific charter, property is practically helpless. The citizens are compelled to see the assessment of property raised by hundreds of millions of dollars, the rate of taxation advanced on this increased assessment, the number of officers constantly enlarged, and their compensation inordinately increased. It is estimated by the Comptroller that the operation of the new charter costs the citizens of Greater New York not less than $15,000,000 a year more than their former government, while there is nothing to show for it but a name. The old city was wastefully and extravagantly governed, and the effect of consolidation has been to spread waste and extravagance through the suburbs. Village constables that were contented with $400 a year have become city policemen at $1,400, and corresponding advances have taken place in all departments.

The latest raid on the city treasury is made under the provisions of the "labor law" of 1894. That act shortened the hours of labor in city work, and provided that "the prevailing rate of wages" should be paid. The chance for plunder was not at first perceived. The employees of the city probably realized that their positions were enviable, and it did not occur to them that the labor law would enable them to collect large sums on the ground that their compensation had been unlawfully small. But the legal profession does not lack members astute enough to discover every existing possibility of mulcting the city, and for a year or more these gentlemen have been getting up claims for back pay for mechanics and laborers. The amount of these claims is now increasing with startling rapidity, and the result to the city treasury may be compared with the effect of the dependent pension act on the Treasury of the United States. That act was sufficient by itself to bring the government to the verge of bankruptcy, and to cause a financial panic; for had it not been for that diversion of revenue the Treasury would not have had to provide for a deficit. When hard times return, the burden of taxation which is now being heaped on this city bids fair to be literally ruinous.

Theoretically the charter provides the city with guardians. Claims against the city are presented to the Comptroller, and he is, in the contemplation of the law, assisted in discharging his duties by the Counsel to the Corporation. The framers of the charter, however, did not extend their theories so as to provide for the not unlikely event of the Comptroller and the Counsel taking different views of the merits of a claim. In such an event—which occurred in the notorious aqueduct claims of O'Brien and Clark—the Comptroller is obliged to employ his opponent as his legal representative. The result is to make the Corporation Counsel practically the supreme auditor of the city. The present Comptroller resisted the payment of the O'Brien and Clark judgment so long as he could do so without being sent to jail for contempt of court. It has been assumed, although the fact is disputed, that various city authorities, including Comptroller Fitch, consented to the payment of $700,000 in settlement of the O'Brien and Clark claims, and that the Corporation Counsel was, therefore, authorized to confess judgment for the city. On the ground of these consents the courts held that claims must be paid which were pronounced by the special counsel retained by the city to be "without any foundations whatever in law, justice, or equity." It was frankly admitted that the true reason for settling was the probability that the Legislature would eventually compel the city to pay the whole of these claims if no compromise was reached. And in spite of the alleged consents, two justices, McLaughlin and Patterson, held that the confession of judgment by the Corporation Counsel was invalid, saying: "The property of the city cannot be used to prevent hostile legislation or to 'purchase peace' by preventing the prosecution of claims which have no legal existence." No more dangerous precedent could be conceived, it was added, "as it practically puts the disposition of the property of the city in the hands of the Corporation Counsel."

That seems to be the opinion which the Corporation Counsel now entertains of his powers. He apparently considers that such formalities as the advice of special counsel, the approval of the Aqueduct Commissioners, the consents of the Mayor and Comptroller, may be dispensed with. His theory is that his own con-

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sent is all that is required in order to authorize valid judgments against the city to be entered, and he is acting on that theory to an extent which is staggering. It has been calculated that judgments against the city to the amount of $2,000,000 were obtained last year. That amount promises to be doubled during the year to come. The amount of the claims under the "labor law" filed so far this month is twice as great as in any previous month. In 1897, the city assumed the obligations of eighty-nine corporations consolidated by the charter, and the possibilities of claims from this source are boundless. The Corporation Counsel says that he is powerless to resist these claims, and that it is cheaper for the city to confess judgments than to contest them. However this may be, it is evidently desirable that some other consent than that of this officer should be required before claims unlimited in amount are fastened on the city.

PROF. MIVART AND THE CHURCH.

Prof. St. George Mivart has long held a peculiar position in the scientific as well as in the religious world. As a scientist, he has been one of the few distinguished investigators and students of his generation who have not been thorough-going evolutionists. Twenty years ago a perplexed theological student asked his professor for a good book to read on evolutionary theory. "Read Mivart," was the innocent reply; "he does give it to Darwin so!" On the other hand, Prof. Mivart has been held up as a standing illustration of the tolerance of the Catholic Church. Apologists have made much of him. The Catholic Church antagonistic to science? Why, look at St. George Mivart! No freedom of inquiry within the Roman communion? Prof. Mivart gives the lie to that calumny.

Well, this is all ended now, as Prof. Mivart has been formally excommunicated from the Church for refusing to recant his opinions and submit to his ecclesiastical superiors. The painful story is set out at length in the correspondence between him and Cardinal Vaughan, recently printed in the London *Times*. The Professor had published in two of the London reviews some exceedingly frank articles on Catholic liberty of opinion. He now says that he did so under a solemn sense of duty: he had been warned that he had not long to live; he felt that by his past writings he had influenced many persons in favor of views which he had come to believe erroneous, and that he ought not to go out of the world silent. So, he says, "I made my articles as startling as I could, so as to compel attention to them, and elicit, if possible, an unequivocal pronouncement." This he promptly obtained. The *Tablet* directed attention to his audacious articles, and Cardinal Vaughan speedily called upon him to declare his "reprobation" of his expressed opinions and his "sincere sorrow for having published them." His Eminence also demanded that Prof. Mivart sign a confession of faith, which he sent as "a test of orthodoxy," failing which "the law of the Church will take its course." Cardinal Vaughan no doubt intended to write in a kindly way, while discharging a disagreeable duty, but some of his language was most offensive, even unconsciously. Thus he calmly assured Prof. Mivart that it is "your moral rather than your intellectual nature that needs attention." In other words, if the Professor would only pray and fast, he would have no difficulty in reconciling contradictory propositions.

But the suspected heretic despised the ecclesiastical swords pointed at his breast. He had succeeded in eliciting the authoritative voice of the Church. Catholic by family ties and personal inclinations though he was, he could not stultify himself, and firmly wrote to the Cardinal: "I categorically refuse to sign the profession of faith." In the same letter he declared that it had now been made clear that "a vast and impassable abyss yawns between Catholic dogma and science," and that "no man with ordinary knowledge can henceforth join the communion of the Roman Catholic Church, if he correctly understands what its principles and its teachings really are, unless they are radically changed." In his final communication to Cardinal Vaughan, Prof. Mivart put the case in a condensed and forcible form, which we cannot do better than to reproduce:

> "The fact is, that all Catholic teachers about Scripture are embarrassed by antecedent affirmations which you cannot disown, glad as you would be to do so. The Council of Trent naturally fell into error because then modern science was but in its infancy; while that of the Vatican was no less mistaken because the great majority of its bishops neither knew nor cared anything about natural science.
>
> "But these truths you are not free to affirm because of the dogma of 'infallibility,' which clings to the Church like the fatal garment of Nessus, and will surely eat away its substance and reduce it to a mouldering, repulsive skeleton if that doctrine does not come to be explained away by dexterous Catholic theologians.
>
> "As to the old worn-out saying, 'There can be no discrepancy between science and religion,' it is quite true if religion is always careful to change its teaching in obedience to science, but not otherwise.
>
> "As to 'accommodations' and 'Biblical modes of speaking,' it is 'true,' or it is 'not true,' that the animals went up to Adam to be named, and so with respect to the story about Babel, etc.
>
> "Very many men and women are now anxious and distressed about their duty with regard to the Bible. What good end can be served by telling them it 'contains no errors,' while yet a multitude of its statements are altogether false?
>
> "By such a method the very foundations of religion become tainted with insincerity, untruth, and dishonesty."

We recount this sorrowful experience of Prof. Mivart's without the slightest animus against the Catholic Church. It is no worse, in principle, as respects freedom of opinion, than the Protestant Church. Many zealous Presbyterians are at this moment engaged in the attempt to put Prof. McGiffert out of their church for asserting Presbyterian tolerance and liberty. The difficulty lies not in one church more than another, but in the general principle of attempting to assert authority over reason. The Catholic Church does it at one point, the Protestant churches at others; but all do it. From the law of their being they are bound to do it. In all of them there are certain permitted laxities of belief, so long as these are not offensively proclaimed. You can practically enjoy every liberty except that of asserting in public that you are free. If you do that, the fate of Prof. Mivart befalls you. His case does not really prove that a man cannot be a scientist within the Catholic Church; it proves only that he must keep still about his "conflicts of religion and science." All the churches now substantially say, "Believe what you like in private, only conform publicly."

It is not pleasant for any communion to lose a man like Prof. Mivart. For the Catholic Church his excommunication is a peculiarly unfortunate event just at this time. At the very moment he is being excluded from fellowship, French Cardinals and the Pope himself are praising Father Bailly as a champion of the faith. Who is Father Bailly? He is the member of the Assumptionist Order who proclaimed that the condemnation of Dreyfus at Rennes was due to the miraculous intervention of the Mother of God in behalf of France and the French army!

THE MOTHER OF THE DUC D'ENGHIEN.

PARIS, February 7, 1900.

Count Ducos has found a catching title for a very ordinary book—I mean ordinary in a literary sense, for the subject itself is full of interest—'La Mère du Duc d'Enghien.' Who does not take a natural interest in the unfortunate young prince who was shot at Vincennes? and, consequently, who would not wish to know something about his mother? It is difficult to imagine a book that possesses the elements of the 'Mère du Duc d'Enghien' showing so much inexperience in the art of using such elements, such an absence of proportion in their development. Such as it is, the work deserves to be read, though it sometimes inflicts on the reader the necessity of going through pretentious and useless descriptions, and excursions into questions quite foreign to the matter in hand. The original documents which have served to compose this memoir come chiefly from the National Archives of the Palais Soubise, from the Archives of the Foreign Office, and the Archives of our Navy Department.

Louise Marie Thérèse Bathilde d'Orléans was born on July 9, 1750. Her mother was Henriette de Bourbon de Conti; her father, the Duke d'Orléans, was commonly called "le gros Philippe." He was fat, ordinary, very good-natured. The young princess took the name of Mademoiselle, reserved for the

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first princess of the blood till she married. She was educated at the fashionable abbey of Panthemont. At the age of seventeen she was baptized (this sacrament was given to the princes and princesses of the blood only when they took officially their place in the royal family; Rome consenting to this deviation from its rule on account of services which she had received from the house of St. Louis). At their birth, the princes were merely *ondoyés*, as the phrase was and is still—a ceremony which now takes place when there is imminent danger of a newborn child's death before a priest can be summoned. King Louis XV. and his Queen Marie Leczinska took the young princess to the baptismal font.

Mlle. d'Orléans left Panthemont to take part in the wedding of her brother, the Duke de Chartres, with Mlle. de Penthièvre. She made the acquaintance of her cousin, the Duke de Bourbon, whom she was soon afterwards to marry, though he was younger than herself, being only fifteen years old when the marriage took place; but the young couple did not immediately live together. The young Duke took a little journey, and the new Duchess returned for a time to her convent. Laujon, who was familiarly attached to the house of Condé, wrote on this occasion a play called "L'Amoureux de Quinze Ans," which was represented at the theatre of Chantilly. The great passion manifested by the Duke de Bourbon at the time of his marriage, did not last long; at the age of sixteen he was not content with conjugal happiness. The manners of the time did not permit a vulgar fidelity; it was thought very bourgeois to be faithful. There was in the park of Chantilly, in what is still called "L'Île d'Amour," a naked statue of Love, minus his arrows and his wings, with a heart in his hand. On the pedestal was this inscription:

"N'offrant qu'un cœur à la beauté,
Aussi nu que la vérité,
Sans armes comme l'innocence,
Sans ailes comme la constance,
Tel fut l'Amour au siècle d'or;
On ne le trouve plus, mais on le cherche encore."

The Duke de Bourbon did not look long for him, thinking only of his pleasures, his amusements. The Duchess was mortified by her husband's numerous and changing caprices; but her vanity was more wounded than her heart. On the 2d of August, 1772, the Duchess had a son at Chantilly, who received the name of Duke d'Enghien—a small, delicate infant, so frail that it was for a moment doubtful if he would live. Soon afterwards, she was forced to dismiss one of her ladies, Mme. de Canillac, as she found out that the Duke de Bourbon had become too attentive to her. She could not prevent Mme. de Canillac from leaving the palace with the honors of war. The intimate friend of the Prince de Condé, the young Duchess's father-in-law, was the Princess of Monaco, of whom I have spoken at length lately. She wrote on May 3, 1773, to one of her friends from Chantilly: "Young Canillac has the *survivance* [reversion] of M. de Puységur, with the salary and the perquisites till he has the office. Mme. de Bourbon being very discontented, Mme. de Canillac retires. The Prince de Condé gives her a pension of two thousand a year." The Count de Puységur was at the time first gentleman of the bedchamber to the Duke de Bourbon. Such details explain what Paul Louis Courier said afterwards, in his famous pamphlets, of the court and the courtiers.

The Duchess de Bourbon frequented the balls of the Opéra, as did all the ladies of the court. Belleval writes in his Souvenirs in 1773: "It is affirmed that the Duchess de Bourbon has been exiled from Chantilly for an intrigue with the Chevalier de Coigny. He has received an order to join his regiment, and not to come back without the King's permission. It would be for the Duchess de Bourbon only *un prête pour un rendu* [a Roland for an Oliver], for the Duke de Bourbon, young as he is, already has had several mistresses." The young Duchess was living in circumstances which were no protection for her. Her brother, the Duke de Chartres, was notorious for his ill-conduct; her father-in-law lived in equivocal relations with Madame de Monaco; her own father was completely under the sway of Madame de Montesson; her young husband was entirely estranged from her. Madame d'Oberkirch, who was her intimate friend, tries to defend her.

"No woman," she says, "has ever been more unjustly judged; she keeps in her heart a deep and true love for her husband, though he makes her so unhappy. She has been accused of some adventures. I have never seen anything to justify it; at any rate there was in her affairs more giddiness than anything. If she forgot some rules of propriety, it was certainly because she tried to forget herself. She wished to tear from her heart the poisoned arrow."

This seems far too sentimental for a time which, though it prided itself on sensibility, was not very sentimental.

The Duchess de Bourbon spent much of her time at Chantilly, while her husband lived in Paris in the gayest company. In Paris, she inherited the charming Palais Bourbon, belonging to her father-in-law. She was so unfortunate as to become, one evening at a masked ball at the Opéra (these balls were at the time frequented by the best society), the occasion of a quarrel between the Count d'Artois and the Duke de Bourbon. The Count d'Artois tore her mask from her face. It was a grave insult, and though the Duke de Bourbon was neglecting his wife and lived almost wholly apart from her, he thought it necessary to avenge her. This duel made an immense noise at the time; it was bloodless, and the two princes fought, so to speak, for the gallery, like two fencing-masters. The Duchess de Bourbon was not brought nearer to her husband; a complete rupture took place some time afterwards. The King ordered the Prince de Condé to give annually to the Duchess the sum of 250,000 francs, and gave her the exclusive possession of a pension of 50,000 francs, which he had paid to the young couple since their marriage. As for the young child, the Duke d'Enghien, it was agreed that "the Duchess de Bourbon shall be allowed to see her son, either at Paris or at Saint-Maur, and shall take him to the play only when he has the permission of his father. The Duke de Bourbon shall send his son to her once a week." At the very moment when this arrangement was being made, the Duke de Bourbon had a child by a dancer of the Opéra, Mademoiselle Michelet, and he used his right as prince of the blood to give her the name of Bourbon. This child was christened in the presence of the old Marshal de Soubise and of Mademoiselle de Condé; she was well educated, and was married to a Montessus de Rully, first gentleman of the bedchamber to the Duke de Bourbon.

The total separation of the Duchess and her husband made a great change in her life. She had to reduce her household, and kept only one lady, Mme. de Sérent. She ordered her existence less as a princess than as a private person, appearing very little at court, and only in very official circumstances, giving much of her time to the Opéra, the French Theatre, the Italian Theatre, and even the small theatres, such as Nicolet's, now remembered only by its device, "De plus fort en plus fort." But the chief absorbing topic for her became mesmerism; she threw herself with a sort of passion into the new theories of animal magnetism. She fell under the influence of a man who was nicknamed the "unknown philosopher." He was a gentleman, born near Amboise, Louis Claude de St. Martin, who had been initiated by a Portuguese into a sort of mysterious doctrine in which Judaism, the Kabala, and Christianity were mixed up. This church had secret rites like free-masonry; Swedenborgian ideas were mingled with those of Saint-Germain. The Duchess de Bourbon, like many other great ladies, became an adept in this complex illuminism. She liked to believe in the "corps astral"—an astral body which abandoned the material body and transported itself freely in every direction.

In our day, the peculiar mental malady of which this sort of material illuminism is a symptom, would go under the name of hysteria or neurasthenia. There cannot be any doubt that the Duchess de Bourbon was neurasthenic. She was not mad, she was very odd, and presented the curious but not uncommon contrast of a sort of double existence—one subject to all the rules of decency, of reason, of natural instincts; another absolutely irrational, and subject to the most incoherent, illogical, and perverted influences. In so far she justified one of the hypotheses of Saint-Germain, which is the splitting in two of the human personality. She became in reality two persons in one. The peculiarities of this strange character became much more apparent when the Revolution broke out.

Correspondence.

THE CRIME OF '73.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I observe that Senator William E. Chandler opposes the currency bill because, he says, it does not remonetize silver and makes permanent the gold standard. He seems to have forgotten that he approved the act of '73 that dropped the silver dollar from the list of American coins because there were no such coins. In the report of the Director of the Mint (1896), page 461, is a letter from Mr. Boutwell, Secretary of the Treasury, dated April 25, 1870, addressed to the Finance Committee of the Senate, and accompanied by a report of Mr. John Jay Knox, Deputy Comptroller of the Currency, and a bill to revise the coinage laws of the United States. The report said:

"The coinage of the silver-dollar piece, the history of which is here given, is discontinued in the proposed bill. It is by law the dollar unit, and, assuming the value of gold to be fifteen and one-half times that of silver,

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being about the mean ratio for the past six years, is worth in gold a premium of about three per cent. (its value being $1.03.12) and intrinsically more than seven per cent. premium in our other coins, its value thus being $1.07.42. The present laws consequently authorize both a gold-dollar and a silver-dollar unit, differing from each other in intrinsic value. The present gold dollar piece is made the dollar unit in the proposed bill, and the silver dollar piece is discontinued."

In response to Mr. Boutwell's letter the House passed a resolution requesting him to furnish the House with copies of all correspondence between the Department officers of the Government and other persons touching the bill and report. In the correspondence transmitted in compliance with this request is a letter (page 534) from W. E. Chandler, late Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, to Mr. Knox:

WASHINGTON, D. C., May 15, 1870.

DEAR SIR: I thank you for sending me a copy of your report and proposed bill for a revision of the mint laws. The necessity of such a revision has been apparent to every one connected of late years with the Treasury Department. The work has been admirably performed by you. You have happily secured and availed yourself of the suggestions of others, while impressing upon the codification that unity and completeness which can only result from the operations of one thoroughly informed mind. If the law is enacted it will result most beneficially. . . . (Signed) W. E. CHANDLER.

John J. Knox, Esq.

There is also a letter from Ernest Seyd of London, who had written a book in favor of the so-called double standard. (Just here I will say that, as a standard implies unity, the term "double standard" is a solecism—a contradiction in terms. One watch or one clock may be a standard of time; but two watches or two clocks, each keeping a different time, like a gold dollar and a silver dollar of different commercial values, furnish no standard of time or value. One only can be adopted for practical use.) Seyd, reviewing the bill by sections, says:

"Sec. 51. I now come to the most important part of the bill, that of the valuation, which, according to section 15, omits the coinage of the silver dollar and confirms the debased silver coinage of half-dollars and below, under the tender limit of $5. I am aware, of course, that, through the amendment of 1853, the same debased coinage was already established; but although the actual coinage of the silver dollar had practically ceased, still that piece was not abolished by law. As this new bill presumably repeals all previous enactments, I suppose that the total abolition of the silver dollar is contemplated. In my book ('Suggestions') I enter fully into the discussion of this matter, and show the gigantic consequences to international as well as national trade through the demonetization of silver, to which the United States would thus lend a helping hand; and for a number of years this subject of the abolition of silver as tender coin has occupied the attention of European economists."

This correspondence proves how false is the charge that the coinage act which was pending three years in Congress was surreptitiously passed; also, that the Nevada Senators voted for it with a full knowledge of what it contained. JNO. S. MOSBY.

SAN FRANCISCO, February 11, 1900.

MR. STILLMAN ON THE BOER WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a patriotic American, for years in close touch with English public opinion, I should like to say a word in reference to the (as it seems to me) extremely injudicious and unjustifiable unfriendliness shown by some of our people towards England in the question of the conflict with the Boer republics. I do not mean to appeal for gratitude on account of the moral support given us by England in the question of the Philippines—though knowing on safe authority that she saved us from complications which would probably have ended in a much worse state than the present—because there may be some to whom I would appeal who think, as I do, that we should not be in the Philippines. Gratitude is nowhere a national virtue, and is especially deficient in republican countries. The tie of blood is even less an obligation to friendly treatment, and probably not one in ten of our people sees far enough into the future of civilization to understand that the prevalent influence of England rather than that of any other of the European Powers, with its inevitable consequence of the heredity of the English-speaking races, would be for the benefit of the race at large; and the personal and chauvinistic greed of large sections of our States would prefer a very small bird in their own hands to-day to a large flight of larger game in the future. They cannot, or will not, see that England, everywhere she goes, is planting industrial and human interests which are growing and ripening not only for our race, but for all races of men. We have always been a short-sighted nation, and our greatest losses and disasters are due to that.

But there are two questions which ought to appeal to the two influential classes of Americans—those who look at the right and wrong of the thing, and those who regard the direct interests of the United States from any large view of them. I am of the former, but I understand the point of view of the latter. And as to the right of the matter, I have yet to see a broad and unprejudiced statement of the whole question, in which England and the present English Government (of which I am no supporter, but severely critical) does not appear worthy of our entire sympathy. The conclusive testimony may not be yet before us, but waiting for peace to liberate it; but what there is I have seen, and am completely satisfied that the Government neither desired nor contemplated war, but that the Boer Governments had decided before Majuba that they would expel the English authority from South Africa when the opportunity offered. But admitting that all the accusations of duplicity and bad faith on both sides are justified, and that both Governments were trying to deceive each other, the casting vote is in the Boer declaration of war and invasion of the English colony of Natal, with the declared intention of driving the English out of South Africa.

There are three reasons for withdrawing all sympathy from the Boers on account of this movement. The first is, that it is a proof that what they wanted was not independence but domination. If they thought themselves strong enough for an offensive war against England and the conquest of Natal, where is a majority of English, and Cape Colony, where there is only a doubtful majority, they were infinitely more capable of repelling any attack and conducting a successful defensive war. They acted as our Confederacy did in firing on Sumter—to fire the Boer blood in the Colony. In defending their independence against aggression, they would have had an invincible public opinion, in England even, in their favor. The second is, that in their restrictive measures at home they showed that they were not a majority, even in the Transvaal, and, therefore, as a minority seeking to dominate a majority, they deserve no support from a free people. And the third is, that they were, as in the case of our secession, attempting to substitute a retrograde civilization for one which was superior in every respect and more for the advantage of the races concerned. Throwing out all the words, declarations, and negotiations as liable to impeachment and mutually contradictory, the facts put the Boers in the wrong, show them to be aggressive and domineering.

The direct interests of the United States demand the maintenance of the English rule where it is maintained with justice and liberality, as the most just and liberal in government and in commerce of all the Powers that might succeed to the place England holds. Our highest interest all over the world (at home, if we would but see it, as well) is in the maintenance of free trade. Any other Power taking the place of England would be a protectionist Power. The stake of England in this war is at the least her African empire, and possibly that of India. If it were forfeited, the substitution of any other Power for England in either of those cases would be *pro tanto* a loss for American interests. No American political economist ought to question this.

A reason which lies farther in the future and deeper in gravity is, that when, in the normal course of political and commercial progress, England's internal resources fail her, or the development by peaceful growth of the western world passes her in the race, we come in as the principal heir of her commercial supremacy; while the sudden and violent collapse of England not only is the presage of terrible wars and interminable disasters, but must throw that estate into remoter succession and exclude us from our legitimate predominance in the future. The present prostration of England would mean the leaving us out of any account in the immediate future, for we have not yet made any adequate preparation for asserting our claims. The peace of the world in this juncture, and the best interests of humanity in the remoter, depend on the victory of England in this war.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

DEEPDENE, FRIMLEY GREEN, SURREY, ENG., February 9, 1900.

MARY CHAWORTH'S DAUGHTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A friend in England writes to me under date of February 1:

"It is strange, but soon after your letter came, I think while I was actually reading it, I heard the church bell tolling, and soon learned, what indeed I had expected, that our dear old lady at the manor house had passed away. I think she would have been ninety-four next May, and she kept her mind and her sweet happiness up to the last. She was out driving last Friday (January 27), and unfortunately opened her carriage window and caught cold. She will be greatly missed here."

The death of this interesting old lady breaks a link with a great past, for she was the daughter of Mary Chaworth, whom Byron loved so hopelessly. In August, 1805, Mary Chaworth was married to Mr. John

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Musters, who took the family name of the heiress. Byron saw her but once after the marriage. One day, in the autumn of 1808, shortly before his leaving England on the first Childe Harold's pilgrimage, Mr. Chaworth invited him to dine at Annesley Hall. The little daughter of his hostess was brought into the room. "At the sight of the child," Moore writes, "he started involuntarily—it was with the utmost difficulty he could conceal his emotion; and to the sensations of that moment we are indebted for those touching stanzas—

"'Well! thou art happy.'"

The date of this poem is November 2, 1808, and on the same day Byron wrote to his mother, announcing his intention of sailing for India in the following March.

As is well known, Mrs. Chaworth's marriage was not a happy one; she was separated from her husband, her mind became affected, and she died young, in 1832, from shock caused by the Reform riots in Nottingham.

Her daughter became Mrs. Hamond, and was lady of the manor of Swaffham, Norfolk, her eldest son being lord of the neighboring manor of Acre. It is all historic ground, the manor of Acre containing the picturesque ruins of Castle Acre, the stronghold of John de Warrenne, that Earl of Surrey whom Wallace defeated at the battle of Stirling.

I first met Mrs. Hamond during the winter of 1887, when I was a student at Newnham College, Cambridge. I had gone on a visit to some friends in Swaffham. On the Sunday morning, coming out of the old gray church, my friends introduced me to the lady of the manor as she sat in her carriage. It was a fine, bright, gentle face that greeted me, of a woman over eighty, but still vigorous, and interested in life. One of the ladies told her we had been reading Byron's "Dream" the evening before. "Oh, that was all nearly a hundred years ago," she said, smiling pleasantly. I saw Mrs. Hamond for the last time on a July afternoon a few years later, and before me as I write is her note, neatly folded into a small triangle and sealed with red wax, asking me to take tea with her. I had just then crossed the Atlantic for the third time, and to her, in her old-world village of Swaffham, I seemed to be a great traveller. Two of her sons were in the royal navy, one of them an admiral, and several of her grandchildren had gone to the colonies—Canada and Australia. I remember that as we drank our tea the talk was of distant lands, of America and farthest Asia. Some spicy Indian sweet was produced out of a Chinese jar to top off the feast. Around the room on the eye line there was a row of beautiful miniatures, and, before I left, Mrs. Hamond rose and pointed them out to me, lingering with some entertaining story over nearly every one. She supported herself on a gold-headed cane as she walked about, for she was very stout, with a figure like that of the Queen. There were several portraits of Lord Byron, and quite a number of miniatures of her mother, all representing a lovely woman, with a fair, girlish face. "My mother was a beautiful woman," she said simply.

Standing in the doorway of the elm-shaded manor house, gold-headed stick in hand, and clad in a black satin gown, her sweet old face set off with snowy hair and white lace cap, Mrs. Hamond was herself a picture. The westering sun cast a glamour over the venerable lady and the peaceful landscape, and all about there seemed to throb the greater glamour of an undying romance, of unrequited passion, pain, high thought—the wrack of genius.

MARY AUGUSTA SCOTT.

NORTHAMPTON, MASS., February 13, 1900.

MANGLING A CLASSIC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just lit upon an instance of liberties taken with a classic in what should be a standard edition that seems to me amazing. Has any one called attention to it, or inquired for the responsible person? It is in Harper's Biographical Edition of Thackeray, and occurs in 'The Rose and the Ring.' That delightful Christmas book is "illustrated by the author," and Thackeray tells us in his introduction how the pictures came to be made, and how the story grew out of the pictures. Yet the publishers have introduced from somewhere several drawings not by Thackeray and not in sympathy with the text, and have done this with no word of warning to the reader, thus making Thackeray responsible for work he did not do. This is bad enough, but it is the tampering with the text which is serious. The page headings to 'The Rose and the Ring' are, as is well known, in rhyme, and form a sort of continuous accompaniment and comment on the story. In the Biographical Edition this begins all right:

"Royal folks at breakfast time.
Awful consequence of crime!
Ah, I fear, King Valoroso,"

and then—nothing; a blank, and the next couplet begins:

"Here behold the monarch sit," etc.

My memory tells me that conduct "but so-so" rhymed with Valoroso, and completed the sentence and the couplet, but I am deprived of any other authority for that fact. Why? Simply because a new chapter begins on the page where this information should appear, and printers do not like a page heading above a chapter heading; so, out goes the line. There are nineteen chapters to the story, and consequently eighteen lines are chopped out, sometimes the first line of a couplet, sometimes the second; and headless and tailless sentences are left to dangle in the air regardless of rhyme or reason. Who does these things? Or who should have seen that such things were *not* done and neglected his duty? One has heard of editing with a pitchfork, but this is editing with a cleaver.—Yours,

CASEY.

AMERICANA MINORA ET MAJORA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The amusing and instructive British publication "Who's Who?" has prided itself for the last year or two on the increased accuracy and fulness of its transatlantic biographies. Far be it from us to be hypercritical. Some slight imperfections in proportion and detail, however, still remain. For instance, if the Hon. Grover Cleveland, who was chief executive for "1885-8," deserves mention still in 1900, why not a half-line for his namesake who officiated in "1893-6"? While Mrs. Burton Harrison has two entries and a careful up-to-date bibliography, a certain Mr. Benjamin Harrison is unknown in England. "His Honour Judge Robert Grant," all whose "frivolities" and "confessions" down to the current year are duly catalogued, will not disdain to shake the judicial ermine with a chuckle when he hears that a certain obscure schoolmaster, whilom yclept "Carolus Gulielmus," is invisible a thousand leagues away. Perhaps, however, some Yale man hath done this out of mere envy. At least, the youthful head of the rival Thinking-shop is carefully included in the conscientious "Addenda."

W. C. L.

ADELPHI COLLEGE, BROOKLYN,
February 10, 1900.

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co.'s spring announcements include 'Side Lights on English History,' edited from papers and diaries of the past three centuries by Ernest F. Henderson; 'Leading Documents of English History,' edited by Dr. Guy Carleton Lee of Johns Hopkins; 'The Memoirs of the Baroness Cécile de Courtot,' lady-in-waiting to the Princess de Lamballe, compiled by Moritz von Kaisenberg; 'His Lordship's Leopard,' an extravaganza by David Dwight Wells; 'The Open Road,' poems of the wayfarer, compiled by Edward Verrall Lucas; 'Memory,' by Prof. F. W. Colgrove, of the University of Washington; 'The Art of Debate,' by Dr. R. M. Alden; and 'Spanish Prose Composition,' by Prof. M. M. Ramsay.

'Man and his Ancestor,' by Charles Morris; and 'The Criminal: His Personnel and Environment,' by the Rev. August Drähms, are shortly forthcoming from the press of *Macmillan Co.*, together with 'Sexual Dimorphism in the Animal Kingdom: A Theory of the Evolution of Secondary Sexual Characters,' by J. T. Cunningham; 'Politics and Administration,' by Prof. Frank J. Goodnow; 'Colonial Civil Service: The Selection and Training of Colonial Officials in England, Holland, and France,' by A. Lawrence Lowell; and 'Home Nursing,' by Miss Eveleen Harrison.

D. Appleton & Co.'s February announcements include 'Municipal Government,' by the Hon. Bird S. Coler, Comptroller of New York; 'A History of the Spanish-American War,' by Richard H. Titherington; 'The Principles of Taxation,' by the late David A. Wells; 'The Secondary School System of Germany,' by Dr. F. E. Bolton; and 'Some Great Astronomers,' by Edward S. Holden.

The Scribners will issue without delay the 'Memoirs of Princess Mary, Duchess of Teck,' based on her diaries and letters; in two volumes, with numerous portrait and other illustrations.

Elder & Shepard, San Francisco, will shortly publish 'Opportunity and I,' impressions of travel through the Eastern States and Canada, by Nellie Blessing-Eyster.

Mr. Henry Farrar, 36 Essex Street, W. C., London, proposes to publish the Marriage Registers of Saint Margaret's, Westminster (1538-1837), in three and possibly four volumes, super-royal 8vo, at a guinea a volume. This church was the mother church of St. Martin's in the Fields; St. Paul's, Covent Garden; St. Anne's, Soho; St. James's, Westminster; and St. George's, Hanover Square; being as well the parish church of

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the House of Commons. There will be a complete index of persons and places for each volume. The edition is limited to 250 subscribers, and volume one will appear in July.

The second issue of Mr. H. Whates's uncommonly useful manual, 'The Politician's Handbook,' comes to us from Vacher & Sons, London. Primarily designed for the English market, this summary and digest of the diplomatic correspondence, Parliamentary papers, treaties, reports, and other Government documents of the year, has a value for student or editor anywhere. Under "South African Republics," for example, we have fifty pages of condensed and impartial information. "China" and "India" are fruitful entries. The editor has an "introductory review" for each leading document, in the nature of an exposition of the course of diplomacy. Here he hazards opinions with which he does not expect "general agreement"; but, in the compilation of material, "absolute impartiality has been attempted." The issue runs to 248 pages, as against 169 in the initial volume. It is a true friend at elbow.

We had a good word, and not brief, seven years ago, for Mr. Frederic Harrison's 'Annals of an Old Manor House' (Macmillan). While it has a technical side that is pretty stiff reading, the human historical is quite otherwise, and it was well advised to abridge the work, as has now been done, by leaving out the expensive colored plates and most of the illustrations and the genealogical matter. The result is a small and still pleasing volume. "And I now," says the author, of this Sutton Place where his father lived and died, "must add to these memories those of my mother and my brother Lawrence," who also successively lived and passed away there.

Nearly twenty years have elapsed since Jowett's translation of Thucydides appeared (in 1881), in two volumes, one of text and one of notes. The Master of Balliol expressed his indebtedness to W. H. Forbes of his college for general collaboration, and for having compiled the material for the dissertation "On Inscriptions of the Age of Thucydides." Mr. Forbes and Evelyn Abbott have now revised the translation and the dissertation in question (as also that on the Geography of Thucydides) in accordance with Jowett's desire, observing his request "to make no change or insertion of which they think he would have disapproved, and to retain the general character of the work." As published by the Clarendon Press (New York: Henry Frowde), the reprint fills two octavo volumes smaller than the original and omitting the notes altogether, since the revision of these also would have caused a serious postponement. The historical index fills nearly a hundred pages. This edition is fairly to be called popular, though handsome enough for any library; and it is put forth at a time when the fate of imperial ambition and the misery of war can be most profitably studied in pages of undying interest and power.

Mr. Edward Field adds to his numerous painstaking and authoritative Revolutionary works a transcription and annotation of the 'Diary of Col. Israel Angell, commanding the Second Rhode Island Continental Regiment during the American Revolution, 1778-1781' (Providence: Preston & Rounds Co.). Col. Angell was a brave and capable officer who served in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and in his native State with distinction. His diary throws some added light on important occurrences, such as the evacuation of Newport and Arnold's treason; records familiar routes of travel, civil and military, in his day; affords glimpses of army discipline, and of the genus "patriot" in the service; is strong on the weather (some of it almost past endurance); genealogically alone was worth editing; and orthographically is capable of furnishing much innocent amusement. "La fflat" and "fu-de-joy" are not more laughable than common deformations of the vernacular. André's name appears as "Andrew" and "Andrews." Mr. Field is naturally strongest in Rhode Island topography. In the last line of page 100 he fails to discern Suffern and Ramapo in "Soverens" (tavern) and "Ranomapough."

Mr. F. Stanhope Hill, Secretary of the Massachusetts Nautical Training School, has been moved to write 'The "Lucky Little *Enterprise*" and her Successors in the United States Navy' (Boston: The Author). The original *Enterprise*, a schooner, was built in Maryland in 1799. The present steam sloop-of-war *Enterprise*, the fourth of her name, was built in Maine, in 1873-76, and, unlike her belligerent namesake, has no recorded engagement. She has been employed in surveying the Amazon, under Selfridge, and deep-sea sounding under Barker, and is now the Massachusetts school-ship. Mr. Hill closes his interesting memoir with the just reflection that the modern *Enterprise* is doing as worthy service to the state as the vanquisher of the *Boxer*.

Volume iii. of the *Anglo-Saxon Review* (John Lane) is arrayed, as were its predecessors, in a gorgeousness quite beyond that of the lilies of the field; its six engraved portraits—Denon's fine Bonaparte, Gainsborough's Canning, Shelley and his wife, Paderewski, Mary of Lorraine—are of a high order of excellence; but when we pass to the letter-press, the distinction of the number seems to end. Perhaps the absorption of the editor, Lady Randolph Churchill, in the Boer war may account for the rather disappointing papers, some of which, like Señor Moret's on Spain, begin well and hold out hopes, only to dash them in the end. Even Mr. Mallock's interesting attempt to serve up Lucretius in Omar's quatrain, must, with its admixture of FitzGerald, Shakspere, the Bible, and Mr. Mallock himself, be pronounced only a *succès d'estime*. For more of translation and less of transfusion the first nine quatrains should be compared with the opening of the second book of 'De Rerum Natura.'

The activities of the classical department of Harvard University are well shown in the new (tenth) volume of the "Harvard Studies in Classical Philology" for the year 1899 (Boston: Ginn). It contains, in all, eleven articles, of which six are the work of members of the faculty. Prof. Greenough writes on "Some Questions in Latin Stem Formations" and on "The Religious Condition of the Greeks at the Time of the New Comedy," an interesting paper. Prof. Howard contributes a note on the mouthpiece of the αὐλός and a collection of metrical passages in Suetonius, while Dr. Gulick considers the Attic "Prometheus" and two passages in the "Birds" of Aristophanes (verses 14 and 167-170). The remaining five papers are by more or less recent students of the University, and constitute by no means the least interesting part of the volume. Especially noteworthy are "The Symbolism of the Apple in Classical Antiquity," by Benjamin O. Foster; "Greek Shoes in the Classical Period," by A. A. Bryant—an extended article which deals with one hundred and sixty citations on this subject from the literature of the fifth and fourth centuries, B. C.; and a "Study of the Daphnis Myth," by H. W. Prescott.

The Oxford University Press (New York: Henry Frowde) has arranged with the Paris house of Hachette to reprint in a single volume on India paper the 'Oeuvres Complètes de Molière,' following the text of MM. Despois and Mesnard in the collection of "Grands Écrivains de la France." The 647 duodecimo pages in double columns of agate type escape being bulky by reason of the famous thin paper of the Oxford Press; but, for those who want to take their Molière more familiarly, the publishers have packed away precisely the same matter in four little 32mo volumes of about 500 pages each, the width of a column, the whole enclosed in a box matching the wine-color binding. In both of these editions, of which the presswork is as clear as possible, the lines are numbered.

John Vanbrugh's life and works form the subject of No. vii. of the *Wiener Beiträge zur englischen Philologie*, edited by Schipper, Luick, and Pogatscher. The author is Dr. Max Dametz, and the book is evidently his doctor's thesis. In some two hundred pages Dr. Dametz reviews the life and personality of Vanbrugh, and follows with considerable detail his work as dramatist and as architect. He thus not only considers the literary activity of the author himself, but also passes upon the judgments of his critics; and he not only describes Vanbrugh's various architectural feats and determines his position among the world's architects, but even goes into minutiæ as to the progress and cost of the erection of such structures as Blenheim Castle. He has made good use of all the resources at his command, but has had to do without some important documents in the case, or to infer their contents from others that were published in antagonism to them. In spite of a certain immaturity of conception and of style, Dametz's work has considerable value, and must be greeted as a real contribution to our knowledge of Vanbrugh and his time.

The Consular Reports for January calls attention to the proposed establishment in this country of a branch office of a Berlin society organized for the reproduction of the masterpieces in the national galleries of Europe. A peculiar process employed "enables the reproducing artists not only to create true facsimiles of the original in every outline, by means of photography and steel etching, but also to produce the depth of coloring and the peculiarities of manner of each master by a special employment of the colors called heliotint, thus reproducing the characteristic handiwork of the artists." By the annual contributions of its more than 16,000 patrons—a list headed by the Emperor and Empress of Germany—the society's productions are introduced "into the homes of subaltern officers, teachers, civic employees, and people in the humbler walks of life, who, however, before becoming entitled to the privilege of receiving such art reproductions, had to sign the society's roll of membership and thus become active

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agents in the missionary work of spreading culture in art." Another aim has been "to foster the love of home and country by giving reproductions from famous masters which represent scenes from history," and this will apparently be the principal work of the American branch. There are also numerous reports on the manufacture of tiles in Europe and Asia, and several relating to South American topics, among others to the successful cultivation of small fruit and oranges in Paraguay, though a great part of the latter crop perishes for lack of means of transportation. Special commendation is given by our Consul-General at Rio de Janeiro to *yerba mate* (Paraguay tea) as a preëminently temperance drink. It has "all the stimulating and sustaining qualities of Chinese tea or coffee, without the detrimental effect caused by their constant and excessive use."

The Baltimore Association for the Promotion of the University Education of Women is prepared to offer a foreign fellowship of the value of $500 for the years 1900-1901. Preference will be given to Maryland women, or women identified with educational interests in that State. Applications with evidences of fitness should be addressed before March 31 to Dr. Mary Sherwood, chairman, The Arundel, Baltimore.

—There is a movement on foot at the University of Michigan to so organize and coördinate certain courses in history, political science, and related studies, as to meet more perfectly the peculiar needs of certain interests or careers. The faculty of the Department of Literature, Science, and the Arts has recommended to the Board of Regents the establishment of five special courses, the titles of which are to be: (1) Diplomatic and Consular Education; (2) Higher Commercial Education; (3) Preparation for Newspaper Work; (4) Preparation for Pastoral Work and Public Philanthropy; (5) Instruction in Public Administration. Students that elect any one of these courses must see to it that, of the 120 hours required for graduation, 24 are in the field of modern languages and 40 are selected from certain specified courses in history, economics, sociology, statistics, international law, administrative law, general and commercial law, history of education, and philosophy. Except for the recognition of certain work (not to exceed 15 hours) done in the Law Department, these "special courses" are simply groupings of a part of the regular university work of the Department of Literature, Science, and the Arts, and the student who elects one of them is a regular matriculate, subject to all the regulations and tests that other students are. The new movement is due, in part, to a recognition of the needs of the times, and in part to a desire to avoid the defects of the system of free elections. It does not mean the introduction of the group system in place of that of free election, but it does mean (in these lines of work) the incorporation, within the elective system, of the advantages of the group system. In other words, students desiring, in their regular university course, to choose their studies in a way most advantageous to them in their future career, will enjoy the advantages of the direction offered by such courses and of the advice and counsel of the committee intrusted with their administration. Whether any special certificate or diploma will be granted in addition to the bachelor's diploma, is undetermined; but it is likely that one will be.

—The *Virginia Magazine* and the *William and Mary Quarterly* for January continue to throw interesting light upon colonial Virginia. The latter prints the will (1767) of Gov. Fauquier, who was an enlightened ruler, still held in esteem in Virginia. In it he said: "It is now expedient that I should dispose of my slaves, a part of my estate in its nature disagreeable to me, but which my situation made necessary for me; the disposal of which has constantly given me uneasiness whenever the thought has occurred to me. I hope I shall be found to have been a Merciful Master to them, and that no one of them will rise up in judgment against me in that great day when all my actions will be exposed to public view. For with what face can I expect mercy from an offended God, if I have not myself shown mercy to those dependent upon me?" He wished the slaves to be allowed six months in which to choose their own master, and expressly stipulated that the women should not be parted from their children. With this humane provision should be read the suggestion of Governor Berkeley, printed in the same number, that all the Northern Indians should be destroyed as a "great terror and example and Instruction to all other Indians"; and further that this may be done without charge, "for the women and children [as slaves] will Defray it," and enough men "from hence will undertake it for their share of the Booty."

—The *Magazine* also contributes something on colonial slavery. In 1672 the magistrates of Surry County decreed that as "ye apparrell comonly worne by negroes doth as well Highten theire foolish pride as induse them to steale fine Linninge & other ornaments, . . . from hence forth noe negro shall be allowed to weare any white Linninge, but shall weare blew shirts and shifts." The term negro-cloth was commonly used in plantation accounts for a coarse and generally colored goods. The punishment allotted as late as 1778 to a slave for murder must be read to be appreciated. The will of the Rev. Orlando Jones, the grandfather of Martha Washington, has value because it supplies definite information on that doubtful genealogy. Some letters written after 1789 give a fair picture of what William and Mary College was, and present a much improved situation over that described by Washington in the early '70s, when he thought of sending young Custis to that institution. President Tyler reviews Dr. Green's 'Word-Book of Virginia Folk-Speech,' and surely is in error when he claims that "agwine" and "high falutin" are "old Virginia speech, survivals of archaic English forms that have been lost in England." A reference to Murray would have prevented such a claim.

—The first volume of a 'History of the Scandinavians, and Successful Scandinavians in the United States,' compiled, edited, and published by O. N. Nelson, Minneapolis, has already been favorably noticed in these columns. This first volume, which originally appeared in 1893, has been completely revised and brought down to the present time, and, with a new edition of the second volume (1897), now forms a book of nearly 900 pages. New material in the work is an article by the editor on the "First Norwegian Immigration, or the Sloop Party of 1825"; matter dealing with Scandinavian settlements, churches, and schools in Minnesota; and additional biographies. Some twenty pages of Scandinavian-American historical bibliography have also been added, and some valuable statistical tables. The work as it now stands contains a reasonably comprehensive account of Scandinavian activity in America, from the coming of the Swedish *Mayflower*, the *Kalmar Nyckel*, to the Delaware River, in 1638, to the important Scandinavian settlements in the Northwest at the present day, particularly in Minnesota, Iowa, and Wisconsin. The editor estimates, on the basis of known statistics, that 1,500,000 Scandinavians have settled in the United States since the beginning of colonization. This immigration reached its maximum in 1882, when a total of 105,326 persons from Denmark, Norway, and Sweden is officially recorded. In 1898 this had dwindled down, however, to a minimum of 19,282. Approximate returns for 1899 show a total of 22,191. The last census shows the largest Scandinavian-born population in Minnesota, with Illinois, Wisconsin, and Iowa following in the order named. Of the cities, Chicago precedes, with Minneapolis and St. Paul next. The editor explains in his preface that, excepting church organizations, there are scarcely any Scandinavian institutions in this country. A third of the space, accordingly, is devoted to biographical records of individuals, many of them accompanied by portraits, representing almost every calling in the community. The whole work is the unmistakable record not only of the reality of Scandinavian effort in America, but of the sterling value of its influence upon the body politic in the making of a nation.

—With volumes lx. and lxi. the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) takes a long stride towards completion. The latter volume is pretty much given over to Kings and Dukes William, and to the great Williams tribe, including Roger, whose place, says the writer, "as a religious teacher, has, perhaps, been exaggerated by his eulogists. His views were not in advance of those of many of his contemporaries, . . . but he certainly had a firm grip of the necessity of the principle of toleration, and he was one of the very first to make a serious attempt to put that principle into practice." Whitefield, another worthy of both hemispheres, is here commemorated. While Bishop Wilberforce is treated by Francis Legge, his father was fitly assigned to Leslie Stephen, who reminds us that in 1786 William Wilberforce carried through the Commons a bill providing, among other ameliorations of the penal code, that hanging should be substituted for burning in the case of women. It was rejected in the Lords. Edward Wightman, by the way, was, we are told in the sketch of him, the last person burnt for heresy in England (1612), and was twice at the stake; and such curious and not unimportant facts so abound in this Dictionary as to suggest the utility of a subject-index. Take, for another instance, Whiston, author of what is still the accepted translation of Josephus, and one of the first, if not the first, to give lectures with experiments in London. He perhaps, too, furnished Goldsmith with the model for his Vicar of Wakefield. Richard Whittington, again, is singular in having been, though an historical character,

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identified with the hero of a popular tale which "has been traced in many countries both of southern and northern Europe, and occurs in a Persian version as early as the end of the 13th century" (Whittington died in 1423). Many will learn for the first time that White's "Selborne" has been "bowdlerised" and so very extensively popularized among the young. The charm of the book, says his biographer, has never been unanimously accounted for. It still remains to explain its wide welcome among readers (like American) to whom "scarcely a plant or an animal mentioned in it is familiar, or even known but by name."

—Part second of *Masters in Art* (Boston: Bates & Guild Co.) deals with a greater and more universal artist than part first, and it is, therefore, natural that the selection of pictures for reproduction should seem less satisfactory. It is quite possible to give a fair view of the art of Van Dyck in ten selected plates, whereas the art of Titian is so varied that the same number of plates can hardly represent him otherwise than partially. The selection given is, on the whole, a good one, though each critic will have his own complaint of certain exclusions or inclusions. The "Assumption" and the Pesaro "Madonna" were, of course, obligatory, though they represent the most factitious and least temperamental part of Titian's production. The "Man with the Glove," "The Entombment," and the "Sacred and Profane Love" are, in their several styles, indubitable masterpieces of the first rank, while the "Madonna with the Cherries" and the "Madonna with Four Saints" of the Dresden Gallery are, if not quite the best, yet among the best of Titian's pictures of that type. There remain, as doubtful inclusions, "Alfonso of Ferrara and Laura Dianti," "Lavinia," and "Charles V. on Horseback." Of course, these are also good pictures, but when one balances them against the omission of any picture of the "Venus" type, of the "Bacchus and Ariadne" and "The Garden of Love"—above all, of the "Flora" and of that most divine of female portraits, "La Bella"—one is not satisfied with the choice. Why this last picture at least, one of the most famous in the world and justly so, was not selected in place of the "Laura Dianti" or the "Lavinia," neither of which is comparable to it either in beauty or technical merit, must remain a mystery. We have criticised the choice of pictures because there is really nothing else to criticise. Let us conclude with the statement that the publication maintains its promise of usefulness. The March number will be devoted to Velasquez.

—As our readers are aware, a commission of inquiry was recently appointed in France for the purpose of determining the steps to be taken in the reorganization of *lycée* studies. The results of this now appear in a volume ('La Réforme de l'Enseignement Secondaire,' Paris: Colin) prepared by M. Alexandre Ribot, President of the Commission, in which are included the points investigated, the conclusions arrived at, and some of the most weighty opinions of educational experts on the principal issues. It need hardly be added that the names alone (Berthelot, Lavisse, Poincaré, Bourgeois, etc.) are ample guarantee of the thoroughness with which the task has been carried out. In the direction of change, classical studies are, it seems, to lose their universally obligatory character through the admissible substitution of living languages taught chiefly on a practical basis; pupils aiming at scientific or commercial pursuits may consequently elect their studies somewhat more freely than heretofore, without the loss of academic status. This change is recommended in view of the altering conditions of modern life. M. Ribot, in the course of his exposition, goes the length of maintaining that want of Greek need be no bar to a useful medical or legal career; the victory of "moderns," therefore, awaits only a final sanction from Government. A more interesting question is involved in the examination of the causes of the diminution of pupils in Government institutions, with corresponding increase of the members intrusted to clerical guidance. While taking full account of the effects produced by local depressions in trade and agriculture, as well as by the raising of fees, etc., M. Ribot freely admits the influence of clerical prestige on numbers of parents who, under politically democratic conditions, still cling to social distinctions for the sake of what these imply in the after-life of their children. But it should also be insisted that the ecclesiastical institution is fully as often sought by shirkers of parental responsibility—because of the absorbingly exclusive attention given to their young charges by men whose profession means total detachment from worldly interests.

FITZGERALD'S EXPLORATIONS IN THE ANDES.

The Highest Andes: A Record of the First Ascent of Aconcagua and Tupungato in Argentina, and the Exploration of the Surrounding Valleys. By A. E. Fitzgerald. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

This handsome volume is a record, of which Americans may well be proud, of a series of expeditions in the Andes of Chili and Argentina around the loftiest summit of the whole range of the Cordilleras, the gigantic extinct volcano of Aconcagua. Mr. Fitzgerald, a young American who had already won his spurs in the Alps, and done some brilliant climbing in New Zealand, where he succeeded in making the first ascent of Mount Cook, or Ao Rangi (as it is sometimes called), set himself in 1896 and 1897 to explore and triangulate the region lying around Aconcagua and reach its pinnacle. Previous mountaineering expeditions to South America had, with one exception, devoted themselves to the remarkable group of peaks which lie near Quito, in the republic of Ecuador. Alexander von Humboldt, as far back as A. D. 1802, reached a height of about 19,000 feet on Chimborazo, the loftiest of these peaks; and, after other attempts, Edward Whymper, a well-known English climber, succeeded in reaching the top of Chimborazo, as well as Antisana, Cayambe, and the still active volcano of Cotopaxi. Attempts had also been made on Illimani, one of the very lofty Bolivian group near the city of La Paz, but it was not vanquished till 1898, when Sir Martin Conway, of the British Alpine Club, climbed it, and attained a point very near the top of its still loftier neighbor, Sorata.

The one exception to the neglect of the Chilian and Argentine Andes was the expedition of Dr. Güssfeldt, a daring German mountaineer, who, in 1883, without any regular guides, attacked the great mountain, and, with one of his untrained Chilian companions, forced his way to a point only thirteen hundred feet below the final peak. He had attacked the mountain from the north. Mr. Fitzgerald approached it from the south, and brought against it a much more adequate siege-train. His staff consisted of Matthias Zurbriggen, a first-rate Swiss guide, and of five Swiss and Italian mountain porters, while with him were three English companions, Messrs. Vines, de Trafford, and Gosse. The party carried with them tents and all sorts of scientific apparatus, as well as an immense supply of portable food. Modern invention has done nothing better for the traveller and climber than in the greatly increased facilities with which it has provided him in the way of nutritious provisions that can be readily carried in small space. Forty years ago such things hardly existed.

The party established camps at several altitudes on the slopes of the great mountain, and, by degrees, accustoming themselves to the rarity of the air and the other difficulties that opposed them, were at last able to make a serious attempt on it. These difficulties proved far more serious than any which climbers in the Alps, or even in the Caucasus, have to face. The extreme rarity of the air is only one among them. Intense heat while the sun shines alternates with frightful cold at night, and even in the day time when clouds cover the sun or a strong wind blows. Violent gales, from the northwest especially, are frequent. (Aconcagua is in latitude 32 degrees 39 minutes south, and therefore south of the area of trade-winds.) The gales carry showers of fine snow in the higher altitudes, and, in the valleys, still more trying clouds of volcanic dust, which blind the traveller and find their way into every part of his stores. The torrents that traverse the cañons are violent, and in the afternoon, when swollen by the melting of the glaciers, so full as to be impassable, or at any rate extremely dangerous. There is no shelter to be had from trees, so that a tent, unless it can be pitched in the shade of a rock, is exposed to a cruel sun. There are no trees (and hardly any vegetation) because the slopes and hollows are intensely arid, the severe climate giving plants no chance, while the springs are so often strongly impregnated with mineral substances that many of them are unfit to drink—that is to say, you drink them, or the streams which flow them, with the probability of an attack of diarrhœa or dysentery.

Such are the drawbacks to mountaineering in the southern part of the Cordillera, apparently even more repulsive than those which Mr. Whymper encountered in Ecuador, and Sir Martin Conway in Bolivia. However, Mr. Fitzgerald persevered. His first attempt failed from bad weather, the wind being exceptionally furious. On the second, Mr. Fitzgerald having got within about one thousand feet from the top, was stopped by exhaustion, want of breath, and violent nausea. His guide Zurbriggen, however, went on alone and reached the summit alone. Another attempt a month later had the same result, but on this occasion Mr. Vines, an English member of the party, accompanied by an Italian porter named Lanti, had just strength enough to push on and gain the top, where, in spite of the intense cold, he

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remained for eighty minutes, obtaining a magnificent view, which reached more than two hundred miles north and as far south, and extended far out into the Pacific Ocean, the margin of which is about one hundred and fifty miles from the mountain.

Aconcagua, apart from its vast height and from the extreme difficulty of getting near it (for the higher region of the Andes is here quite uninhabited, except for one or two stations along the track across the pass by which men go from Mendoza on the Argentine side of the mountains to Santiago in Chili), does not present very formidable obstacles of "the climbing kind" to the practised mountaineer. It is an extinct volcano—long extinct, for there is now no trace of a crater at the top, the crater walls having no doubt been, perhaps thousands of years ago, broken down and so vanished. Like most volcanoes, like Chimborazo and Cotopaxi, like Fusiyama and Kilimandjaro and Mount St. Elias, like Elburz and Ararat, like Mauna Kea and the Peak of Teneriffe, like Etna and Hekla, its general slope from top to bottom is not very steep, and there is more than one way by which the summit can be reached without the familiar dangers of seracs, crevasses, ice-walls, and knife-edge arêtes. The adventures described here are therefore adventures of a very different kind from those which fill most of our Alpine books, and the record is one not of steeple-jack agility and steadiness of head, but of physical strength, endurance, and indomitable perseverance in facing the physical sufferings of intense cold, shortness of breath, headache, nausea, and the various maladies to which an abnormal diet, coupled with extreme climatic variations, is sure to give rise. These qualities have perhaps never been shown in higher measure than by Mr. Fitzgerald and Mr. Vines.

The former being obliged by illness to abandon the hope of reaching the very highest summits, Mr. Vines started with Zurbriggen and two of the Alpine porters for the great summit of Tupungato (21,550 feet, Aconcagua being 23,080 feet). He made four valiant assaults upon it, suffering rather less from the want of oxygen than he did on Aconcagua, but even more from hurricanes, the chief trouble of this range, where there seems to be rather less snow or rain than in the Alps and the Caucasus, but more violent and frequent storms of wind. Perhaps this is due to the great diversity of atmospheric conditions on the two sides of the range. The fourth attempt was crowned with a well-earned success. Tupungato is described as a prodigious dome, the sides heavily snowed in parts, but the upper convex almost free of snow—a remarkable fact considering its enormous altitude. There was no trace of a crater on the top, nor indeed of any recent volcanic action, but Mr. Vines saw signs of an eruption on another lofty summit some thirty miles away to the southwest. He describes the view as even more striking than that from Aconcagua.

The reader will naturally ask what sort of scenery these stupendous mountains offer to the lover of picturesque beauty or of grandeur. Though Mr. Fitzgerald does not directly treat of the point, we gather pretty clearly from his description of the district round Aconcagua, and from Mr. Vines's account of Tupungato and the valleys leading to it, what the general character of the landscape is. Evidently it has only one merit, that of savage and desolate grandeur. The proportions of the mountains are so vast, although the base from which they rise is lofty (for the terminus of the Transandine railway on the Argentine side at Las Vacas is 8,000 feet above sea level, and the Cumbre pass over which the track runs and under which the railway is to run to Chili is 12,800), that they make an overpowering impression upon the eye, and some of the precipices on the sides of Aconcagua are described as stupendous. But the valleys, being bare and stony, with no forests and scarcely any vegetation, are dreary to the last degree. The glaciers are not of great size or beauty. There is, in fact, no relief to the universal sternness and grimness of the landscape—less, it would seem, than in the Andes of Bolivia as described by Sir Martin Conway, though that region also seems far from picturesque in the proper sense of the word, and less also than in the Andes of Ecuador as described by Mr. Whymper.

The book is well written throughout, without any of those attempts at florid description or at forced fun which have sometimes been censured in the narratives of mountaineering expeditions. There are a good many reproductions of photographic views, many of them very well done, and greatly adding to the value and interest of the book; while the appendix contains an account of the minerals and fossils collected, from the very competent hands of Prof. Bonney of Cambridge (England) and of Mr. G. C. Crick.

Romances of Roguery: An Episode in the History of the Novel. By Frank Wadleigh Chandler. In two parts. Part I. The Picaresque Novel in Spain. New York: Published for the Columbia University Press by the Macmillan Company. 1899.

The favorite reading for entertainment throughout the world when our sober Pilgrims came to America, and for nearly a hundred years before and another hundred after, was tales of trickery and beggary, based upon the doings of certain merry knaves in Spain. These stories began in 1554, with the account of the blind beggar's assistant, Lazarillo de Tormes, and practically ended there with Periquillo de las Gallineras in 1668; but elsewhere they went on indefinitely, and the one of them which became the most famous of all, Gil Blas, the imitation by the Frenchman Le Sage of the Spanish work, did not appear in full till 1735. Suppose Ginés de Pasamonte, the escaped galley slave, who, as Master Peter, with his learned ape, so amusingly tricked Don Quixote, expanded to the dimensions of a volume, and he would represent the Spanish rogue of fiction at his best.

There is a general agreement as to the causes of the production of rogues on a large scale in Spain and the consequent rise of the Picaresque fiction, and no writer can add much to our knowledge of them. The two principal ones were the closing of the military career to large numbers of persons when Spain declined from the brilliant estate she had enjoyed under Charles V., and the paralysis of industry by the stream of treasure that had flowed in from America. We find Prof. Warren, in his history of the early novel, holding that people took to living by their wits not so much because they could get nothing to do, as because they were no longer willing to do it. Brunetière ingeniously suggests, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, that this may have been a crude and perverted evolution, in a world suddenly become commonplace, of the Spanish feeling of punctilio, which made the point of honor to consist in not working for a living, just as the great paladins and soldiers they admired, and the characters in the current Books of Chivalry, had not worked. If this were the case, a somewhat more lenient view would have to be taken of the rascals in question; their misdeeds would have to be ascribed to a perverted tradition.

The Rogue fiction, too, is represented as having been a reaction against the Books of Chivalry and the Prose Pastorals. Tired of those highly artificial productions, readers began to demand something nearer to life as they actually knew it. A surfeit of paragons of every possible and impossible perfection begot the anti-heroes, paragons of indecorum and iniquity. The Rogue story and the Pastoral, however, appear to have flourished side by side, since the first pastoral, Montemayor's 'Diana,' appeared only two years before 'Lazarillo de Tormes,' the first rogue story. Idealized shepherds, groves, and brooks were one form of relief from the excessive warfare; and humor, for which the ostensibly serious Spaniard has ever shown a great proclivity, was another. Even then the true and perfect knights of chivalry continued to prosper greatly, and the whole truth is that the various kinds of fiction, grave and gay, fantastically romantic and probable, flourished in company, as they always will flourish to suit various tastes and degrees of intelligence.

The period of the Spanish rogue is an interesting one under all aspects, and Mr. Chandler has done well to take it for his contribution to the series of Studies in Literature now being issued by Columbia University. There exists considerable writing on the subject already, and the authorities are quite accessible; little needed to be added, as a general statement of the case, to the chapter on this head in Ticknor's standard History of Spanish Literature. But there was wanting a full, separate treatise, and this want Mr. Chandler's monograph admirably supplies. He writes carefully, seriously, with close attention to his extensive mass of material, and, in spite of his alliterative title, appeals to the scholar more than to the general reader for entertainment. The research has been completed for a second part, to consist of a volume on Spanish influence in the other countries of Europe—France, Germany, Holland, and England—which should be equally acceptable.

The romances of Spanish roguery were the origin of modern realistic fiction, but it is probable that few readers are now able to get much more enjoyment out of the originals than that based on their historic interest. The number of metamorphoses and adventures they contain, in a single volume, is startling. One chapter alone will comprise more than enough to fit out a score of lively modern romances. Reeled off at such headlong speed, naturally the material is spread out very thin. It was apparently produced for persons who were unable to keep their attention upon any subject more than a few minutes at a time. The humor is in large part merely a gross sort of horse-play, which could now amuse only the

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coarsest tastes. Noting, for example, that Pablo, the Sharper of Segovia, was once at the University of Alcalá, anybody who should turn to the book hoping to get some account of that famous seat of learning, would find only a lot of indignities, too disgusting to mention, put upon the hero, and then pranks in cheating housekeepers, and stealing from marketmen and shopkeepers that have no connection with any particular place or occupation in life. The favorite subject for joking in these books, beyond all others, is the avoidance of hunger, or, not merely hunger, but staryation. The picture of the boarding-school at Segovia, a school for young noblemen, too, is so cruel and woful that Nicholas Nickleby at Dotheboys Hall seems almost rolling in plenty by comparison. Lazarillo de Tormes, again, speaks of the absolute penury and silence in the house of the poor knight his master. "We would often pass two or three days at a time without opening our mouths to put into them a morsel of food or to speak a word." This situation is so grim and bitter that it is hard to see how it could contain anything akin to humor. It is well brought out in the essay of Arvède Barine (Madame Vincent) in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on "The Beggars of Spain." "There are cases of starvation among the poor everywhere," she says, "but what is rare indeed is lords and ladies lacking for food in their noble castle halls. And yet more rare is the calm, heroic, stupid patience with which they endured the pangs of starvation till they fell fainting with weakness. It would have been a derogation from their dignity to go forth and make any active exertions for a dinner."

Mr. Chandler's plan of arrangement comprises a display of the causes giving rise to the Spanish rogue and to his literature; society as viewed through the rogue's eyes; the crude early forms of these stories; the emergence in them of personality, or a definite character in the adventurer as distinguished from his mere adventures; imperfect and allied forms; the decadence; and, finally, a very complete bibliography of the earlier editions of the books and of their translations issued in other countries. The author prints, too, a long list of the authorities he has consulted. The chapter on the decadence of the Picaresque novel is perhaps the best, as being the most interestingly written. The considerable section of the book entitled "Society through the Rogue's Eyes" collects from the entire range of the tales passages showing how each of the typical figures and occupations of the time was regarded. We have a mass of testimony in turn concerning the soldier, the lawyer, the doctor, priest, student, barber, innkeeper, and others, and also concerning those alien members of society, the Jew, the gypsy, and the Morisco or (forcibly) converted Moor. The process is a sort of shredding up of the literature. It is useful for reference, in that one can turn here and become well informed on the points named without ever reading the books themselves. But it is possibly a little too encyclopædic and prolonged; we might have been satisfied earlier of some of the positions established, and more evidence is produced than is needed. Herein, if at all, is suggested the vice of the "thesis," of "original work" under university direction, the mere counting-up or statistical method. But it is only very faintly suggested.

Statistics and Economics. By Richmond Mayo-Smith. Macmillan Co. 1899.

This work constitutes the second part of the author's "Science of Statistics," the former volume being entitled 'Statistics and Sociology.' There is no clear line separating economic from social phenomena, but a rough classification may be made according to the predominance of material elements. Figures concerning births, deaths, and marriages, for example, would not fall under the economic rubric, while it would include the statistics of the production, distribution, and exchange of material goods. Such a division is convenient for descriptive purposes, but it is not of scientific value. If legislation is to be guided by statistical returns toward definite social ends, the whole mass of social phenomena must be considered. In other words, the whole psychological nature and activity of man must be kept in view, if we are to determine the merits of any particular measure.

The purpose of this author, however, is predominantly descriptive. He ventures on few predictions, and confines himself, for the most part, to the classification of statistical returns, and to the selection from them of such as appear most representative. These again are compared, showing variations from period to period, and from place to place. As a result, we have a fairly systematic presentation of the principal economic phenomena, such as the consumption of laborers, the area and products of farms and mines, the quantity of capital, the amount of manufactures, the variations of price, the phenomena of wages, interest, profits, and finance in general. Of course, it is impracticable, in a single volume, to do more than take a cursory view over such a vast field as this, which is withal the scene of numberless conflicts between different observers. To take even such a view implies prolonged labor, and the rapidity of the onward march of industry is so great as to make figures obsolete as soon as they are gathered. The statistics of the past year, for instance, would differ so greatly from those of three years ago as to make the world appear almost to have changed its nature. We get the complete report of the census perhaps four or five years after it was taken, and by the time it is available for scientific use it is practically superseded.

Some valuable results might be obtained by the comparison of successive returns, but here the statistician is confronted by an insuperable difficulty. It is the first requirement of science that observations shall be made by observers trained to accuracy, but this is too commonly the last requirement of our public statistical bureaus. Every one knows how the last census of the United States was taken, and how the next one will be taken. In addition to errors caused by the incompetency of observers, there has been intentional coloring for partisan ends. As Mr. D. A. Wells pointed out, the census of 1890 had the effect of vitiating comparisons by introducing a false term in the series. Its mischief is thus not temporary, but perpetual; and it will continue to vitiate the conclusions of statisticians so long as it is used.

It is not the least of Prof. Mayo-Smith's merits that he frequently warns his readers of the fallacious character of the figures which he is compelled to lay before them, and it is worth while to specify a few particulars. In order to state a value for the land in the United States, the Census Bureau took the assessed values, and then increased them to such a figure as was thought proper by the officials. The results, as our author says, were valueless, and so were those presenting the growth of wealth in successive decades, as they were made on different plans. The statistics of land, of agriculture, and of production, he declares, are very imperfect, and it is doubtful if they can be made much more than estimates. Nor does he admit the possibility of measuring, by crude statistics, the efficiency of either capital or labor. In fact, he maintains, the attempt to get statistics of capital ought to be abandoned, for what returns we obtain are not only uncertain and unreliable, but also positively misleading. So of the gross product of industries, the methods employed in our census lead to most grotesque and irreconcilable results. Prof. Mayo-Smith himself states the total private wealth in France as 225 million francs, while he elsewhere gives the value of landed property in that country in 1882 as 91,584 million francs. For ordinary newspaper use, we fear, one statement would answer as well as the other, and the error, due probably to a slip of the pen, may some time furnish a Congressman with material for an impressive argument. We regret to see that Prof. Mayo-Smith does not allude to that monumental, and, we might say, classical, blunder of our Treasury Bureau of Statistics which was detected by Mr. W. C. Ford.

When the attempt is made to deal with statistics of price, we need not say that disagreement prevails. Jevons, it will be remembered, when he came to average his index numbers, employed the geometric instead of the arithmetic mean; but Laspeyres showed that this method would, in a typical case, prove that prices had not changed, whereas in fact they had risen 25 per cent. On the general subject of index-numbers, and the related one of the quantity theory of money, Prof. Mayo-Smith has much sound criticism to offer; but the subject is too technical for us to examine. The statistics concerning the amount of gold used in the arts and in general circulation are notoriously doubtful, and our Mint report states the recoinage of gold at about $15,000,000 in 1896, and $146,000,000 in 1897. As to wages and profits, the variations in statistical returns are of the wildest character. The census report of 1890 gave the average profit of capital invested as nearly 17 per cent.—a calculation pronounced by Prof. Mayo-Smith to be "a delusion and a snare." There is good reason for applying the same terms to reports in Massachusetts which made the return on invested capital 4.83 per cent. We cannot resist the conclusion that the main work of statisticians at present should be critical in character, and that time spent in drawing inferences from facts not scientifically ascertained is worse than wasted. Hence we must regard the chief value of such a work as this as consisting in the warnings and cautions of which it is to a considerable extent made up.

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The Drama of Yesterday and To-day. By Clement Scott. 2 vols. Macmillan. 1899.

There is an ancient yarn, told in many varying forms of prose and rhyme, of a cheap-jack who, when he was asked what possible object there could have been in the manufacture of the articles which composed his stock in trade, replied that they were made to sell. Some such motive, encouraged, perhaps, by a certain joy of authorship, affords the most reasonable explanation of Mr. Scott's two bulky volumes. That they will find many readers is altogether probable. The modern daily press has created a voracious public appetite for the frivolous personal gossip in which they abound, but the real lover of the stage who wades through them in search of information, judicious comment, intelligent discrimination, originality of idea, a comprehensive grasp of salient facts, or, indeed, any of the expected fruits of long experience, will meet with nothing but weariness and disappointment.

Mr. Scott, for many years a voluminous contributor to different theatrical publications, is best known through his long association with the London *Daily Telegraph*, a pioneer in the journalism which deliberately substitutes quantity for quality. From first to last, in editorials and police reports alike, it has distanced all competitors in the trick of cheap and florid verbosity. It is not, therefore, difficult to guess where he acquired the fatal habit of that easy writing which, as Sheridan observed, makes such desperately hard reading. Speaking of his own achievements in the way of rapid composition, he naïvely remarks that a critic who cannot write a review in an hour and a half is not worth his salt. Speed, red-hot speed, is apparently, in his view, the main test of excellence. Upon this principle, evidently, he has compiled his book. Rarely, if ever, has there been published, even on theatrical topics, such an extraordinary mass of confused, irrelevant, and trivial matter. He has not only scoured the highways and byways, but has scraped the very gutters of theatrical life for items. And he has pitchforked all his odds and ends together with the most utter contempt for either order or proportion. Criticism, biography, anecdote, topographical reminiscence, time-worn jokes, Bohemian tittle-tattle, tragedy, comedy, the circus, and all sorts of miscellaneous padding are piled up in the vast heap, of which two-thirds is rubbish.

This is not to say that there is no good matter to be extracted from it by conscientious delving. The novice may discover therein copious quotations from old and modern writers of recognized authority upon dramatic affairs; excellent, if venerable, paragraphs about Macready, Cooke, Edmund Kean, Jerrold, and many other celebrities of the early part of the century, of whom Mr. Scott, of course, has no personal or exclusive knowledge; vast quantities of ill-assorted but generally accurate data about theatres, plays, and companies; and not a few hints as to the unfortunate ties existing between the stage and some of the men who write about it. But all these things are a thrice-told tale, or utterly worthless to the theatrical student, who values the stage mainly for its possible relations to art, literature, and life, not for its opportunities of social joviality. Mr. Scott, to be sure, talks much about the past degradation of the English theatre, and discourses fluently of the enormous improvement in its condition following upon the introduction of the Robertsonian comedy and the establishment of what he calls free trade in art. A good deal of what he says is true enough, but terribly trite, and his ideas about causes and effects seem to be of the vaguest. At all events, the importance which he evidently ascribes to the lucubrations of the *Daily Telegraph* will be mildly amusing to all who know the place which that journal occupies in the estimation of cultivated persons.

Of Mr. Scott's original contributions to his book it is difficult to speak tenderly and truthfully. Nothing is much more exasperating than the spectacle of wasted opportunity. He confesses himself an enthusiast, but enthusiasm for an art is scarcely a justification for writing about all the professors of it in terms of indiscriminate flattery and rhapsody. That he has had wide experience of nearly all branches of his subject is beyond question; that his natural powers of judgment have been quickened by it is only a fair presumption, but there is no trace of this in his expressed opinions. After reading his pages, one would think that there were not half-a-dozen indifferent performers among all the many hundreds whom he enumerates. All of them, in one way or another, are paragons of artistic proficiency. Most of them are veritable birds of paradise. It is to be noted, too, that such American performers as have visited London, or are likely to do so, are glorified with similar extravagant laudation. There is, however, one actress in whom, apparently, Mr. Scott sees flaws. The exception is notable and significant; her name is Eleonora Duse.

It is not worth while to pursue the subject further. It would not have been worth while to devote even so much space to it if the book were not a flagrant example of the worst kind of current stage literature. Nothing has contributed more to the present melancholy condition of the theatre than the misapprehension by the vast majority of writers for the daily press, both here and in England, of the true functions of theatrical criticism, in their absurd flattery of actors and actresses, than whom, as a body, no class of so-called artists is more vain or less competent. If the magnification of them as performers is mischievous, the adulation of them as individuals, simply because they are actors, is ignominious. In the serious theatre it is the play, the work of the author, that is entitled to first consideration, and the achievement of the actor is to be measured by the extent to which he has realized the author's design. The creator is greater than the creature. This is the artistic and true view, and the only one by which those who pretend to be friends of the stage and of actors ought to be guided.

The Cambridge Natural History. Volume V. Insects. By David Sharp, M.A., M.B., F.R.S. 1895. Volume VI. Insects. Part II. 1899. The Macmillan Company.

Though the cover to volume v. reads "Peripatus, etc., Sedgwick," nearly 500 pages of the contents are devoted to insects by Sharp. Almost 100 pages are required to describe the structure, habits, development, and general classification, before the subject is taken up by orders. In this part there is little that is original and at the same time important; but, on the other hand, it would be difficult to set out more concisely and clearly the main facts concerning the various topics that are taken up. The treatment is in popular form throughout, but accurate, showing a wide range of information and an intimate knowledge of the recent literature, which was, indeed, to be expected of the learned author.

"The words of Linnæus, *Natura in minimis maxime miranda*, are not a mere rhetorical effort, but the expression of a simple truth." This quotation shows the spirit in which the author approaches his subject; and, in the effort to set out the great wonders of insect life, he has produced a series of chapters that are never dull, and are free from objectionable technicalities while technical terms are freely used. The distinction is an important one, for there is no greater abomination to the layman than the technical treatment of a subject in a work that is presented to the reader for general information; while the same layman does not object to a technical term that is given a meaning intelligible to him the first time it is employed.

In discussing the separate orders, the author gives, first, a very brief definition of the group at large, and then discusses the characteristics of the main divisions, their peculiarities of development, and the life habits of the species in general. Contrary to the usual practice, the external structures which are used by the systematist are not given the leading place; but there is a free discussion of physiological peculiarities, of methods of reproduction, and of the modifications in alimentation, respiration, etc., induced by the circumstances under which the insects live. Seventeen pages are devoted to the "Apiera," which are ordinarily dismissed in a page or two at most, and it is shown here, following the maxim already quoted, that in these inconspicuous creatures there is a field for study and a wealth of peculiarities that render them worthy of much more attention than they have heretofore received. It is, perhaps, unfortunate that the author holds so closely to the term "Aptera," which, while perfectly applicable to the order intended, is equally descriptive of all the suctorial parasitica and of the Mallophaga. The term Thysanura, as employed by American entomologists generally, seems much preferable, though it does not conform to the terminations based on wing structure.

As the scope of the work embraces the insect fauna of the world, there is abundant opportunity to select as illustrations the most remarkable productions of all life zones, and this opportunity has been used to the full; not that there is a gathering of insect freaks, but of peculiarities of development resulting from local conditions. So, much space is devoted to the peculiar Roaches of the tropics, though in temperate countries they are remarkable for nothing except the numbers of certain species. In almost every case the fossil forms of the order under consideration are mentioned, making possible a connected history of its development. For the benefit of the special student of insects, tabular or synoptic statements in smaller type are given when deemed necessary. The order Neuroptera is retained practically with the Linnæan definition, though the author recognizes it as a heterogeneous aggregation, which he divides into eleven families. In

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this he is somewhat out of line with the conclusions reached by American students, who have pointed out good characters for their ordinal separation. The truth is, that we have really a number of left-overs—the results of some of nature's early experiments, which were needed at one time, and which have in part lost connection with the stock from which they came. We may either group these remnants in one space devoted to odds and ends, or we can hold them apart in separate categories as they would have been held had the lines which they represent continued to develop. Hymenoptera deservedly receive the greatest consideration, some 260 pages being devoted to a description of their habits and peculiarities; and here the author is at his best in combining the scattered accounts given of individual groups or species into a connected and interesting whole.

It will not do to close this note without a few words concerning the illustrations. Perhaps the briefest statement concerning them would be that they are by far the best that have ever been published in a work of this extent, and that they really illustrate the text. It is all line and stipple work, clear in every detail. In addition, the pictures are also accurate, characteristic, and original, though some have been redrawn from published illustrations. Paper and presswork are all that they should be, but we have noted several typographical errors. The index is sufficient, and by the references to all orders under certain headings a uniform plan, consistently carried through, is indicated. The volumes form a positive addition to the library of the entomologist no less than to that of the lover of nature in general.

Brook Farm: Its Members, Scholars, and Visitors. By Lindsay Swift. Macmillan. 1900.

Much has been written about Brook Farm, if it is fair to judge from the eighty-six titles of Mr. Swift's "Bibliography," many of which include several or more particulars. It is true, however, that some of the titles and sub-titles touch Brook Farm in but the most incidental manner. Really, we have had, heretofore, only one book devoted to it, and that is Mr. T. Codman's unsatisfactory personal memoir. Mr. Swift has done his work so well that the task seems to have waited for his coming, and there can be no good excuse for any one's taking it up again hereafter. The complaint that is likeliest to be made against him is that of imperfect sympathy with the experiment; but, while it is easy to conceive that a more perfect sympathy might have been combined with an equal measure of critical detachment, Mr. Swift's treatment leaves little to desire. If no humorous aspect of the Farm escapes him, he is quick to find and praise whatever was noble and generous in its inspiration, and whatever was excellent or beautiful in the characters of those who took the leading parts.

Mr. Swift's arrangement of his material is a happy one. After a short chapter on the Transcendental Club, we have a longer one on the organization of the Farm, its buildings, grounds, industries, and household work, amusements and customs; a third on the school and its scholars; a fourth on the members; a fifth on the visitors; a sixth on the closing period. In the first chapter Emerson's criticism on the elder Channing, "His cold temperament made him the most unprofitable companion," suggests that he should himself have been another such, while we know that he was not. Channing's probing of Ripley as to "whether it was possible to bring cultivated, thoughtful people together and make a society that deserved the name," was regarded by Emerson as the original germ of Brook Farm. Its "causal and immediate antecedent, with all its wondrous experiences," wrote Ripley in a passage which seems to have eluded Mr. Swift, was a visit to Theodore Parker at West Roxbury in the summer of 1839. It is an amusing coincidence that the original owner of Brook Farm was the same Charles Ellis who brought Theodore Parker to Boston to lecture in the fall of 1841.

The account of the organization, work, play, and buildings of the Farm is sufficiently explicit on its several heads. That of the school and its scholars is mainly devoted to the Curtis brothers, George and Burrill, and Isaac Thomas (later known as Father) Hecker. It is Mr. Swift's habit to follow each of his *dramatis personæ* through their careers subsequent to their Brook Farm experience, and in this way he adds much to the bulk and interest of his book. His last word about Curtis is unfair. It is that he was never "so wedded to a cause that he was willing to suffer for it"; that he would do his reformatory work in "a comfortable manner." His experience in 1884 was not particularly comfortable, and he suffered sooner and later (thanks to his honorable and reformatory disposition) the loss of political honors to which he was not by any means indifferent. The treatment of Father Hecker is particularly kind, passing over silently his assault on Emerson, the most brutal upon record, except, possibly, one of Brownson's in his later writings. But when Mr. Swift comes to Brownson among the visitors at Brook Farm, he does not use him as if he loved him.

It is significant that so many of the Brook Farmers have attained to separate biographies, but Mr. Swift's comments upon Ripley, Hawthorne, W. H. Channing, Parker, Alcott, and so on, are as interesting as if he had had the first squeeze of the grapes. Margaret Fuller's progressive development is set forth in terms with which her most loyal champion, Col. Higginson, can find no fault, and Mr. Sanborn should be almost as well pleased with the treatment of Alcott. Charles A. Dana is handled just a little as if Mr. Swift were fearful of his ghost, but the last arrow in his quiver is one that sticks: Of all the associates of Brook Farm, "he departed furthest from its aspirations." Parker's relations to the Farm were more pecuniary and personal than social and ideal. One of Mr. Swift's few mistakes is that Parker died in 1859. May 10, 1860, is the right date. Mr. Swift's knowledge is in general so thoroughly assimilated that so strange a slip as that on page 130 is unique. Dr. Hedge is there spoken of as one of Ripley's "revered instructors in the Divinity School." Hedge was three years younger than Ripley, and graduated from the Divinity School two years after him. Mr. Swift's appreciation of Ripley is full and warm enough to satisfy the more exigent. For a last word we have reserved our due praise of the delicious humor of Mr. Swift's characterizations. It is abundant, with but here and there a little forcing of the note.

Pen and Pencil Sketches of Shipping and Craft All Round the World. By R. T. Pritchett. London: Edward Arnold.

The author of this little volume, who is marine painter to the Royal Thames Yacht Club, had the good fortune to make a long cruise in the yacht *Wanderer*, and around the world with the Brasseys in the *Sunbeam*. As a consequence, he has seen and sketched the craft of many countries and of many types, both savage and civilized, and in this book are reproduced in a pleasing manner a number of the sketches thus made. It is much to be regretted that the letter-press is not as agreeable to the eye as the representation of the limner's art.

The book begins, as becomes a loyal Englishman, with the royal yacht, the paddle-steamer *Victoria and Albert*, soon to be replaced by a craft of the latest design. The Victorian era is represented by many comparisons, but there are none more significant than those shown by the Queen's yachts at the time of her accession, and the one built for her in the last year but one of the century. When she succeeded to the throne, the royal yacht was a sailing vessel, ship-rigged, launched in 1817, and named the *Royal George*, of 330 tons burthen, and but 103 feet in length. The steam yacht just built, a new *Victoria and Albert*, for the Queen, has twin screws, forced draught, telephones, and electric appliances, with a length of 580 feet and 4,700 tons displacement.

After giving a typical sailing yacht in the *Britannia*, and the *Sunbeam* as a British auxiliary steam yacht, the writer represents the tea-clipper and cotton-brig of days gone by, and follows these with some interesting types of English coasting craft. Not the least successful of these crafts is the steam turbine life-boat, of a length of fifty feet and a method of propulsion which does not allow an entanglement with the wreckage of a stranded vessel. This type might be tried upon our own wintry coast with success when our ordinary methods fail, as they at times do. When our craft come under discussion the yacht *Vigilant* is chosen as a typical racing-craft, and the schooner, river barge, and pinkie as specimens of our coasting craft. The pinkie was not confined to the coast of Maine, as our author suggests, but was the characteristic craft of Block Island up to the sixties and afterwards. Ice-boats are not presented as exclusively American craft, but are also charged to Holland and, strange to say, to St. Moritz. The cat-boat of Newport and Long Island is not mentioned, though even more typical than the pinkie, and such characteristic steam craft as the Herreshoff launches and the whalebacks seem beyond the writer's ken.

The characteristic sailing craft of Bermuda, Norway, Denmark, Holland, and other European countries and waters are sketched and described, including the Venetian fishing-boats, with their richly colored sails; the rich dahabeahs and gyassi, with their graceful sails. It is but a step from the latter craft to the Arab dhows of the Indian Ocean, some of which do the slave-trading afloat that is left in the world. Of the other craft of the Asiatic waters the lateen-rigged Bombay yachts appeal

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to the eye, while the sketch of the Ceylon outriggers brings us to a boat not distantly related to the catamaran of Brazil and the outriggers of the South Pacific Ocean. The Burmese rice-boats, however, are in sail, rig, and hull of their own kind—a singularity heightened by the system of reefing forward, viz., by taking out alternate cloths vertically from the bellying sails. Some of the many varieties of Chinese and Japanese junks and sampans are given. We miss, however, the Chinese dragon-boat and the Ningpo lumberer, while the house-boat, which has been so acclimated in China as to become a different species from the house-boats of the Thames and elsewhere, is worthy of mention. The Grand Canal of China alone exhibits a flotilla of water-craft that appeals to the eye, in furnishing both the strange and the picturesque.

However, the world is full of craft, and the choice made by the writer of the opportunities afforded him was, on the whole, excellent and interesting.

L'Allemagne Nouvelle et ses Historiens. Par Antoine Guilland, Professeur d'histoire à l'École Polytechnique Suisse. Paris: Félix Alcan. 1899. Pp. 356.

In this very readable book Prof. Guilland examines the characters and writings of Niebuhr, Ranke, Mommsen, Sybel, and Treitschke in the first line and of a number of other German historians in the second. In sketching the personal traits and estimating the personal qualities of the five writers whom he selects as chief representatives of the German school, the Swiss author is generally good-natured and sympathetic, and his criticism of their work is, in the main, appreciative. Of the political tendencies of the school, however, he disapproves strongly, and the exhibition and castigation of these tendencies is the chief purpose of his book. He regrets the disappearance of the cosmopolitan spirit of the eighteenth century, when Herder spoke of ancient patriotism as something "monstrous," and Lessing declared that love of country was "a heroic weakness which I am very glad not to possess." Between this attitude and the narrow and bitter nationalism of Treitschke there were many gradations; but the downward movement, in the author's opinion, began with Niebuhr and Ranke, "the forerunners," the one of whom traced the expansion of Rome in order to encourage the expansion of Prussia, while the other, in writing world-history, emphasized as its chief lesson the importance of nationalities and of their separate civilizations. Mommsen, too, according to Prof. Guilland's theory, wrote his Roman history with the incidental object of glorifying the ancient Germans and vilifying the Celts and their descendants; while his contemptuous treatment of the Roman republicans and his exaltation of Cæsar paved the way for Bismarck's realism and for Prussian militarism. Sybel further stimulated the narrow national spirit by reducing the French Revolution to the proportions of a raid upon property; and Treitschke, with his hatred of everything not German and his deification of success, is simply the logical product of the process that began with Niebuhr.

This whole movement, in Prof. Guilland's opinion, has been equally prejudicial to German historiography and to the German national character. German historians have become increasingly partial and untrustworthy. They have concealed the defects and exaggerated the merits of all the Prussian heroes from the Great Elector to Bismarck. They have caricatured the great men and falsified the history of other countries. At the same time, in teaching their countrymen to distrust theories and admire action, they have bred a realism that has deprived German science of its authority, and has thus undermined their own position. When the decision of the Berlin Academy, awarding the Verdun historical prize to Sybel, was quashed by William II., because, in his histories, Sybel had exalted Bismarck at the expense of William I., and when William II. himself assigned the prize to an obscure panegyrist of the Great Elector—then, in the author's opinion, Sybel fell into the ditch that he and his fellows had digged.

One at least of Prof. Guilland's main theses is open to question. A historian may be pardoned for magnifying his office; but we do not think that the German historians are so largely responsible as he holds them either for the creation of a German national sentiment, or for the national bumptiousness that has been manifested since the victories of 1866 and 1870. To us it seems that the German national movement, with all its results, good and bad, was not so much excited by the German historians as reflected by them. Again, his indictment of all the school, from Niebuhr to Treitschke, reminds us strongly of an indictment for conspiracy when the prosecution possesses direct evidence against but one or two of the accused, and the case against the others rests upon an assumption of complicity. Treitschke, we think, must be found guilty; but Sybel and Mommsen must be acquitted, and Niebuhr and Ranke should be discharged without a stain upon their scientific character.

The Augustan Ages. By Oliver Elton. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

The present contribution to "Periods of European Literature," edited by Prof. Saintsbury, comes from Owens College, Manchester. Its design is to present a comprehensive, yet sufficiently detailed, view of the ground on which, as a critic has said, literary order strove for more than a generation to coerce literary freedom, and ultimately succeeded for a time. In this review the author passes from the France of Louis XIV. to the England of the Restoration and Queen Anne, and thence pushes his investigations into corresponding and contemporary areas of literary activity in Germany, Holland, Scandinavia, and Latin or Southern Europe.

According to Mr. Elton, the influence of æsthetic convictions, or of arbitrary formulas, during this period was fundamentally identical in all these countries, although various local conditions subsequently obscured the retrospect for students too near the field to view it in suitably critical and historical perspective. Critics who deal with comparative literature are nowadays in substantial agreement in the broad conclusion that the spirit of "classical" rationalism, distinctive of the so-called Augustan period, told upon thought chiefly by limiting the scope of artistic interests and effort, while expression was, by logical inference, subjected to a doctrine of steadily narrowing rules. To use M. Lanson's concise summary, "la raison dominatrice et directrice de l'âme humaine" is the key-word of the situation. The merit of Mr. Elton's volume, therefore, lies less in the incontestable soundness of its main propositions than in its endeavor to extend the process of generalization to writers so far asunder as Holberg and Filicaia. It is unfortunate that the small compass of the volume forbade the ampler use of illustrative quotation which its author's wide reading could so easily have supplied. But in this, as in many other works of kindred nature, we look in vain for that wider solution of literary problems which rests on a psychological basis. With the abundance of literary material at one's disposal, there is at the present time no very great difficulty in establishing the causes which determined and directed an artistic current in any one country at a specific moment or during a specific epoch. But the singular fact remains that in other countries, neighboring or distant, a similar wave of thought or feeling passes over the face of things, and, under apparently different conditions, makes for uniformity in the nature, and often the quality, of artistic productions. We have consequently still to seek the philosophical explanation of an almost simultaneous receptivity or mobility in widely distributed human intellect, not to be accounted for by the obvious influences of the imposing energy of genius, the combined efforts of a school, the tyranny of opinion, or the mere fluctuations of taste.

Throughout the course of his inquiry, Mr. Elton misses no opportunity of expressing his comprehension of treatments and methods which found but meagre sympathy with English students of a generation or two ago. "The ignorant dogmatism of Schlegel and some other Germans, who tried to sneer Racine out of court" (p. 100), sufficiently indicates the spirit of the author's criticism, in so far as France is concerned. And Mr. Elton is elsewhere equally undisguised in his dislike of cognate work in his own country, in which he sees nothing more than imitation, rhetoric, artificiality. Leaving the drama out of consideration, we may select the following example of his judgment on what others have taken as the supreme triumph of Dryden's lyrical power in the ringing measures of "Alexander's Feast":

"The deafening clatter of its shallow harmonies, commonest and heaviest in the anapæstic parts, the profusion of antithesis and Latinisms, and its violent trying to be strong, make it the type of rhetorical lyrics, and its popularity measures that tastelessness in the higher matters of poetry which distinguishes the age of good taste" (p. 237).

The above passage may serve to introduce the little we shall say of Mr. Elton's style, of its originality and emphasis. A narrower rhetoric than his finds difficulty in so shaping its canons as to include in their recognition "a mixture of supple adaptiveness and strong will" (p. 50), "the union, in a single regular sheet, of a rigid *cadre* with continual freshness of handling" (p. 296), "shapeless ebullience" (p. 386), or the more elaborately intermingled figures of the following sentence: "His [Malebranche's] vision and his tide of rapt devotion, his reference of all things and thoughts to a central fountain of light and warmth that bathes them, give him his glow and ease, and wing his ample and beautiful rhythms—perhaps the most po-

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etical in French before Rousseau, yet never, like those of another prose Platonist, Giordano Bruno, foaming over with a tide of unmastered emotion" (p. 17). The same habit of mind, however, elsewhere suggests to the author the many apposite comparisons that so frequently brighten and color his pages.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adeane, Jane H. The Early Married Life of Maria Josepha Lady Stanley. With Extracts from Sir John Stanley's 'Præterita.' Longmans, Green & Co.
Alden, R. M. The Rise of Formal Satire in England under Classical Influence. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania. $1.
Alexander, Mrs. Thro' Fire to Fortune. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Bailey, C. Lucreti de Rerum Natura Libri Sex. Henry Frowde. 3s.
Bailey, Prof. L. H., and Miller, W. Cyclopedia of American Horticulture. Macmillan Co. Vol. I. A-D. $5.
Bardeen, C. W. Authors' Birthdays. Syracuse, N. Y: The Author. $1.
Barrow, Elizabeth N. The Fortune of War. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Baumbach, R. Sommermärchen. Henry Holt & Co. 35c.
Beddard, F. E. A Book of Whales. Putnams.
Benton, Kate A. Geber: A Tale of the Reign of Harun al-Raschid, Khalif of Baghdad. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Bentzon, Th. Femmes d'Amérique. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 3 fr. 50c.
Betts, C. L. A Garland of Sonnets. A. Wessels Co. $1.25.
Bonsal, S. The Golden Horseshoe. Macmillan. $1.50.
Boutwell, G. S. The Crisis of the Republic. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. $1.
Brandl, K. Die Renaissance in Florenz und Rom. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Brontë, Charlotte. Shirley. Villette. [Haworth ed.] Harpers. 2 vols. $1.75 each.
Brooks, N. Henry Knox: A Soldier of the Revolution. Putnams. $1.50.
Bruncken, E. North American Forests and Forestry. Putnams.
Budge, E. A. Egyptian Magic. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Henry Frowde.
Budge, E. A. Egyptian Ideas of the Future Life. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Henry Frowde.
Budge, E. A. Easy Lessons in Egyptian Hieroglyphics with Sign List. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Henry Frowde.
Buffum, W. A. The Tears of the Heliades, or Amber as a Gem. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Putnams.
Burnet, J. Platonis Opera. Henry Frowde. 6s.
Burns, J. J. The Story of English Kings according to Shakespeare. Appletons.
Burrage, S., and Bailey, H. T. School Sanitation and Decoration. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.50.
Caffyn, Mrs. M. The Minx. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Chambers, R. W. The Cambric Mask. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Chapman, R. C. Legalized Wrong. Fleming H. Revell Co. 50c.
Choral Songs by Various Writers and Composers in Honour of Her Majesty Queen Victoria. Macmillan. $8.
Churchill, Lady R. S. The Anglo-Saxon Review. John Lane. Vol. III. $6.
Clark University: Decennial Celebration. Worcester, Mass.: Clark University.
Collection of Forms and Ceremonies for the Use of Liberals. The Truth-Seeker Co. 25c.
Conte, J. Le. Outlines of the Comparative Physiology and Morphology of Animals. Appletons.
Coulter, J. M. Plant Structures. Appletons.
Crashaw, R. English Poems. Great Fencote, Yorks: The Editor. Vol. I. 3s. 4d.
Croker, Mrs. B. M. Terence. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: F. M. Buckles & Co. $1.25.
Curtis, Elizabeth A. One Hundred Quatrains from the Rubáfyát of Omar Khayyám. Gouverneur, N. Y.: Brothers of the Book.
Dahn, F. Sigwalt und Sigridh. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25c.
Dryden, J. Poems. Cassells. 10c.
Dudeney, Mrs. H. Folly Corner. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Dugard, M. De l'Education Moderne des Jeunes Filles. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1 fr.
Ely, Prof. R. T. Monopolies and Trusts. Macmillan. $1.25.
Field, E. Diary of Col. Israel Angell, Commanding the Second Rhode Island Continental Regiment during the American Revolution. Providence, R. I.: Preston & Rounds Co. $2.50.
Gray, E. Nature's Miracles: Familiar Talks on Science. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 60c.
Hertz, H. The Principles of Mechanics Presented in a New Form. Macmillan. $3.25.
Hill, F. S. The "Lucky Little Enterprise" and Her Successors in the United States Navy. Boston: The Author.
Hooper, Rev. J. A History of St. Peter's Church of Albany. Albany, N. Y.: Brandon Printing Co.
Hurll, Estelle M. Rembrandt. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Ireland, Alleyne. The Anglo-Boer Conflict: Its History and Causes. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75c.
"Ivory." Apes and Peacocks. A. Wessels Co. $1.75.
Jacobus, Rev. M. W. A Problem in New Testament Criticism. Scribners. $1.50.
Jones, H. S. Thucydidis Historiæ. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
Kemp, Prof. J. F. The Ore Deposits of the United States and Canada. The Scientific Publishing Company.
Kingsley, G. H. Notes on Sport and Travel. Macmillan. $3.50.
Lamson, Rev. D. F. History of the Town of Manchester, Essex County, Massachusetts. Published by the Town.
Mersereau, W. T. The Waif Tones and Undertones. New York: The Waif Company. 75c.
Milman, A. Henry Hart Milman, D. D., Dean of St. Paul's: A Biographical Sketch. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
Ormond, T. S. The Romantic Triumph. Scribners. $1.50.
Phelps, Rev. C. E. Poems. New Brunswick, N. J.: J. Heidingsfeld.
Purcell, E. S. Life and Letters of Ambrose Phillipps de Lisle. Macmillan. 2 vols. $10.
Rideout, H. M. Letters of Thomas Gray. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.
Santayana, G. Interpretations of Poetry and Religion. Scribners. $1.50.
Tabor, E. A. Danger Signals for New Century Manhood. New York: The Abbey Press. $1.
Waterloo, S. The Seekers. Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
White, H. J. In Praise Thereof, and Other Pieces in Rhyme. Boston: Frank K. Foster.

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